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ABSTRACT

This volume is the first in a series of publications designed to highlight some of the significant issues in human service planning for Florida over the next several years. Papers presented in the document include: (1) Career Planning for Human Service Manpower; (2) Assessing Manpower Need for Career Planning; (3) Manpower Utilization and Career Mobility; (4) Manpower Planning in Public Welfare; (5) Human Service Teams; (6) Using Functional Job Analysis to Redesign Jobs; (7) Paraprofessionals in Public Welfare Jobs; (8) Selected Staff Development Issues in Florida Human Service Agencies; (9) Curriculum Building for Agency Education; and (10) Guidelines for the Design of Career Systems in Human Service Agencies. (HS)

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STATEWIDE CAREER PLANNING IN A HUMAN SERVICE INDUSTRY

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of Health and Rehabilitative
Services

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STATEWIDE CAREER PLANNING
IN A
HUMAN SERVICE INDUSTRY

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Forward

With the influx of significant numbers of paraprofessionals, New Careerists, and indigenous workers into the human service industry, the concept of the low-wage, dead-end, unsatisfying job has become a sharp reality. While this has been an issue for several years, it now seems to have become something that is undeniable and inescapable. However, recent evidence suggests that change is not only possible but necessary. For example, it has been found that job reconstruction can result in career ladders that will move people from jobs previously considered dead-end to jobs that pay better and are more satisfying. Further, it has been suggested that jobs can be more interesting through participation, work restructuring, and training provided by the employing agency and educational institutions.

The need for cooperative planning between educational institutions and human service agencies has long been recognized. In recent years the increasing complexity of educational and agency service delivery problems, coupled with the limited fiscal and human resources available to meet them, has made such planning on a statewide basis even more essential. The recognition of this need for statewide collaborative planning has led to increased attention to career planning for human service personnel, with emphasis on the development of career ladders and lattices that will provide more effective manpower utilization and career mobility among human service agencies. Similarly, institutions of higher education are beginning to recognize the need to evaluate their training programs in the human services, especially in terms of adequate career counseling. These efforts highlight the need to develop ways to bridge the information gap between agency needs and university programs.

A major contribution to the development of collaborative planning in Florida was provided by two educational conferences called by Governor

Reubin O'D. Askew. The first, ***An Invitational Conference On Post-Secondary Educational Opportunities For The Disadvantaged,*** held at the University of Florida in March, 1971 was attended by approximately nine hundred educators, agency representatives, legislators, and concerned citizens. The *Governor's Conference On Post-High School Education*, held at the University of South Florida in December, 1971 was attended by a majority of the presidents of public and private universities, colleges and community-junior colleges, and the directors of area vocational-technical education centers. Executive leadership in state government has been a key element in bridging the gap between the providers and consumers of trained manpower.

In order to capitalize on the growing interest in collaborative planning, the State University System of Florida and the Division of Community Colleges, with the assistance of federal and state grants, have initiated educational planning projects in areas such as criminal justice, social welfare, and cooperative education. These planning projects have highlighted the need for more attention directed to the areas of manpower planning in Florida human service agencies and curriculum design for the human service professions, with special emphasis on career counseling and continuing education.

The results of special area planning projects have led to the establishment of an Office of Career Planning and Curriculum Development for the Human Services in the State University System of Florida in collaboration with the Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services. This Office serves as a focal point for career development issues, and has the dual function of assisting the Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services with documenting their manpower and training needs and assisting educational institutions in developing more relevant programs and curricula.

This volume is the first in a series of publications designed to highlight some of the significant issues in human service planning for Florida over the next several years. The monograph series also serves as a vehicle to communicate the findings of other research and demonstration efforts which result from collaborative planning in higher education and the human services. This series, begun with working papers on issues relevant to the human services, will be important for Florida and will provide directions for other educational and career planning endeavors.

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PART I

INTRODUCTION

". . . While we must continue to search out qualified personnel from all segments of our population, we must now assure the best possible utilization of the skills and potentials of the present work force. Employees should have the opportunity to the fullest extent practicable to improve their skills so they may qualify for advancement."*

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*President Richard M. Nixon, memorandum to Heads of Federal Departments and Agencies, August 8, 1969.

Career Planning For Human Service Manpower: The State Of The Art

Michael J. Austin

With the rapid technological changes of the post World War II period, it is becoming increasingly apparent that we are moving toward a service economy. As more and more worker functions are being assumed by machinery, greater attention has focused on the expansion of services in our society to meet our many human needs. At the same time, there has been an expansion of the job market in the governmental arena where today over 1/6 of the entire national work force is employed by a governmental agency at either the national, state or local level. Of this work force, a growing number of people are assuming job responsibilities in the area of human service.

A careful analysis of an emerging service economy indicates that a new human service industry is developing. This industry, like the automotive industry, has many sectors. While the industrial model includes such sectors as General Motors, Ford Motors, and Chrysler Motors, the human service industry includes such sectors as mental health, public welfare, corrections, health care, and education, just to name a few. While it is only in recent years that these various sectors have been viewed as components of a larger industry, there is a growing recognition that all sectors of the human service

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industry must gain a greater understanding of the needs of its work force. In the industrial arena, these needs have surfaced through the unionization of workers at many different levels. This form of employee organization has played only a minor role to date in the human service industry. As a result, a great deal more attention must be paid by administrators and workers to personnel planning, service planning, and staff development planning. An industry that prides itself on meeting the needs of clients must also meet the expectations of workers in the areas of job clarity, job mobility, and upgrading.

In an effort to meet the needs of human service workers today, it is proposed that a career planning strategy be developed that includes the three components of staff deployment for effective service delivery, personnel planning related to classification examinations and performance standards, and staff development planning related to the continuing education needs of workers to improve service delivery and upgrade worker capability. This planning strategy is the primary focus of this monograph and is spelled out in more detail in the following chapters.

Our planning efforts in Florida have taken us in the direction of career development for the purposes of institutionalizing career lattices. Much attention has been given in recent years to expanding opportunities for workers to move up the ladder of job opportunity, involving the performance of more job functions as well as greater responsibility. While there has been much discussion, there is certainly no agreement on how career lattices should be built. There is a growing understanding that the career lattice implies worker mobility in both a horizontal and vertical direction. The horizontal direction includes expanding opportunity for different levels of workers across agency programs as well as between agencies themselves. The vertical notion implies upward career opportunity for advancement in both job functioning and salaries.

The career lattice notion takes into account the need for expanding equal employment opportunity for all levels of workers from the high school graduate or less through graduate level human service personnel. The design of such a career lattice requires careful analysis of existing job classification schemes, classification examinations, and performance standards. It also requires a careful review of existing in-service training or staff development programs to determine the extent to which workers are receiving agency-based training which will lead to career advancement. At the same time, it is crucial to assess the service delivery system which is being used to provide services to clients. In this case, special attention is directed toward the needs of community-based service programs in contrast to institution-based programs.

Higher Education and Career Information

While the issues related to career planning directly affect human service agencies, there is an equal need to evaluate training programs in higher education. In particular, it is becoming increasingly important for students preparing for different human service careers to receive adequate career counseling. Our colleges and universities must begin to spend more time in assessing career opportunities not only in a public service economy but particularly in the human service industry. More information about agency needs must be fed back into colleges and universities. At the same time faculty must become aware of the need of agency programs for staff development and begin to design continuing education programs which meet the needs of both the agency and their personnel.

In an effort to bridge the information gap between agency needs and university programs, a management information system is needed to identify the workers' needs and capabilities. Such a system should be based on the development of a career profile for human service personnel. This profile includes the knowledge and skill components necessary to carry out a wide range of human service tasks. It is proposed that all human service workers who initially gain a position in a human service agency complete such a profile indicating their perceptions of their own skills and knowledge as well as the knowledge and skill areas with which they would like to gain greater familiarity. Such an assessment would be carried out periodically (e.g. every six months) and would provide immediate input for in-service training programs as well as information about the career interests of employees which would have value for universities preparing continuing education programs.

Workers and students face similar career development problems. As a result, career counseling is receiving increased attention on college and university campuses today. Research indicates that career development is determined in large part by the complex interrelationships between an individual's personal characteristics, available occupational alternatives, and environmental conditions.[1] In order to avoid the overproduction of human service personnel in areas where sufficient manpower exist, much more information needs to filter back from agencies to campuses about the future manpower needs of the human service industry.

Building Career Lattices

Many professional associations and organizations are becoming increasingly aware of the need to redesign job classifications in order to create more job opportunity for all levels of personnel.[2] While the American Medical Association is working on the acceptance of the new medical assistant and the National Association of Social Workers is working on the integration of the trained Baccalaureate level practitioner, some of the most dramatic progress can be seen in a recent policy statement of the American Hospital Association. A statement of career mobility programs emphasizes the need for employees to have opportunities to advance in terms of responsibility and income and in turn affect the quality of patient care. The policy statement indicates the following major issues:

"1) reducing the manpower shortage in the skilled and semi-skilled occupations by training current personnel for positions in the shortage areas.

2) reducing the rate of turnover by opening opportunity for employees through training for advancement and thereby providing a more stable staff for the institutions.

3) breaking down some of the barriers to job advancement in health occupations by:
   (a) developing occupational ladders that would define job pathways built on job activities performed at lower levels but related in terms of skills and knowledge.
   (b) developing educational ladders that would define sequential levels of education and experience and permit individuals to progress upward through these levels without duplicating previously acquired training.
   (c) developing release time courses of studies as well as support activities, such as counseling, that would enable individuals to meet the requirements of upward mobility while retaining their regular employment.

4) using many of the established techniques for job upgrading and combining them into a coordinated program that will offer employees genuine advancement, meet the manpower needs of health care institutions, and improve health care in the communities they service."[9]

It is important to note in this policy statement that emphasis is placed both on occupational ladders which relate specifically to the job classification scheme and educational ladders which relate directly to in-service training and staff development. This further points up the need for collaborative planning between the service sector and the educational sector. The recognition of the need and the merit of building career lattices must be accompanied by policy statements which indicate the directions of organizational change. In this case the American Hospital Association has spelled out the directions in which career mobility programs can improve patient care while at the same time more effectively utilize existing manpower.

Job Market Considerations

It is a well known fact that career opportunities are controlled in many cases administratively if not legally by arbitrary restrictions at the point of entry and at the transfer points in the job hierarchy. For example, there is an in-group phenomenon in which the good job becomes available only to those personnel who are in the agency or have personal knowledge of a vacancy. This means that women, blacks, and other minority group members are usually frozen out of these opportunities. As one student of the labor market observes:

> "The labor market behaves quite differently in periods of expansions and contractions. In years of rapid growth, the opportunity for workers to advance into better jobs (i.e. to be upgraded) is much greater than when output and employment are stable or declining. In a recession, the opposite of upgrading often occurs: workers with more skills and more seniority bump workers with lesser skills. Many workers remain employed in a period of recession only by accepting a job for which they are overqualified and which pays less than the one they previously held. This phenomenon of downgrading during periods of slack activity decreases the amount of upgrading required when business improves. Many workers already have the skills required to move into more demanding assignments."[8]

It goes without question that a human service industry is very much affected by the total economy, especially in periods of recession when many out-of-work employees from the industrial sector apply for employment in the public service sector. The influx of former aerospace employees into city, county, and state government jobs is a case in point.

Educational opportunity plays a major role in facilitating the upgrading of human service personnel. While high school programs have generally failed to give human service personnel an edge in the job market, community colleges, through their technician programs, have provided human service workers with a definite edge in obtaining skilled jobs. At the same time, adult vocational training must be broadened and deepened in order to expand career opportunities. For example, there is a shortage of part-time training opportunities under public auspice for workers to add to their skills through late afternoon, evening, or Saturday training programs.

The recent pressure for job upgrading and design of career lattices has come primarily from the lower levels of personnel of the human service industry. In particular, the new community workers hired through the poverty programs and other New Careers programs have identified the need for expanding job opportunity through upgrading and advancement. However, as Ginzberg has noted:

> "The advocates of the new careers approach have not taken adequate account of the head-on conflicts that will arise from their efforts to increase promotional opportunity for the less skilled with the limited number of good jobs that exist, the larger number of competitors for these jobs, and the difficulties of removing the legal, administrative, and organizational impediments that currently control access to these jobs."[3] .

While competition may be keen at the entry level, there is growing interest in the contributions made by technician level workers trained at community colleges. However at this level there are continuing problems in the areas of certification and licensure. Needless to say, there is a need to reverse the trend toward specific educational and program requirements for licensure of professional recognition. As Brecher notes in his study of the health service worker:

> "The guarantee of quality and consumer protection for which licensure is designed might be achieved equally as well by open examinations. This would give recognition to skills acquired in a variety of settings not limited only to formal programs approved by professional associations. To assure that examinations tested for the skills needed to perform a given job, and neither more nor less, the statutes should be enforced by representatives of the consuming public as the particular practitioners and other professions."[4]

Service Delivery Issues

While the career lattice concept is based both on increasing the quality of service and providing opportunity for upgrading personnel in terms of salaries, responsibilities, and morale, it is also important to understand the service delivery implications of career lattices. An underlying assumption of the career lattice approach is increasing services to clients. While reducing a teacher-pupil or nurse-patient ratio will improve the quality of service, it still remains to be seen whether society is willing to pay the increased price for whatever additional benefits are produced. This raises questions about societal priorities related to overall governmental spending and a domestic policy which is committed to meeting the needs of all people through services provided in a public human service industry.

Federal agencies responsible for human service programs are under increasing pressure from Congress to account for the service dollars. Federal service planning has moved dramatically in the direction of service impact evaluation by identifying the following four major program goals for families and children receiving services through funds provided by the Community Service Administration, Social and Rehabilitation Service in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare:

1) Self-support: To achieve and maintain the maximum feasible level of employment and economic self-sufficiency.
2) Self-care or family-care: To achieve and maintain maximum personal independence, self-determination and security in the home, including, for children, the achievement of maximum potential for eventual independent living.
3) Community-based care: To secure and maintain community-based care which approximates a home environment, when living at home is not feasible and institutional care is inappropriate.
4) Institutional care: To secure appropriate institutional care when other forms of care are not feasible.[7]

Service delivery will be redefined in terms of removing barriers to these goals through new or existing services. This process is based on measurable objectives with such criteria as the numbers of clients screened, referred, placed, counseled, etc. This will require individual service plans to be developed by human service personnel with special emphasis on moving clients through and ultimately out of the service system.

As we proceed to redesign our human service agencies by shifting our emphasis from institutional care to community-based care, the human service industry will receive greater visibility by the total society. In addition there will be a strong push to interrelate the community-based services to avoid duplication and increase service effectiveness. With this thrust in mind, it becomes apparent that simply altering the career mobility practice of a single agency without improving the potential for mobility within the entire industry will prove to be of dubious value. As services become more visible, there will be an increased pressure to employ the traditionally excluded groups such as women and minority group members. This will raise questions about the value of job equity in relationship to job efficiency.

Those administrators responsible for delivering quality human services must also take into account the increasing need for worker upgrading programs which can be designed to meet one or more of the following policy objectives:

> "Altering occupational structures so as to provide a greater proportion of upper level jobs; increasing the proportion of better jobs filled internally; rationalizing the criterion used to select those who are to be advanced; enlarging the pool of manpower eligible

> for advancement; and increasing the job satisfaction of employed workers."[8]

While the primary emphasis of human service programs is the delivery of quality services to clients, more attention must now be placed in the area of upgrading human service personnel.

In addition to the issue of quality services, there is a greater need for continuously assessing how services are delivered. The use of differentially staffed human service teams has received attention in selective agencies around the country. Only preliminary research shows that the team form of work group organization proves to be more effective than simply reducing caseloads of traditional human service workers.[9] There also appear to be early indications that the cost of delivering services may be reduced through a team approach in contrast to the individual worker serving hundreds of clients.

The team delivery approach also indicates a need for reassessing supervision. The classical model of supervision in which a senior worker supervises the work of many direct service workers has been under attack. With the emphasis on delivering hard, concrete, and tangible services, there are indications that the supervision concept will move more towards a notion of service management in contrast to worker management. This will allow for greater autonomy among workers and will shift the emphasis to service accountability along with worker accountability.

And finally, it is important to note that very little attention has been paid to worker morale in the human service industry. Serving the complex needs of institutionalized clients or managing caseloads in the community can tax the knowledge, skills and altruism of any normal person. To what extent have jobs been evaluated in terms of the variety of activities performed by workers? Human service workers can suffer as much as the assembly line worker from unbroken routine and boredom. Career planning must take into account worker morale in the context of service restructuring, job classification revision, and staff development programming.

* * * * * * *

The process of career planning is complex. It will require both a commitment to the concept of career mobility regarding improved services to clients and employees and the technical skills required to assess manpower utilization in a changing service delivery system. Until there is major occupational restructuring, there will be few opportunities for upgrading human service personnel. The shift from institutional-based services to community-based services is one of the significant changes in the human service industry for the 197O's. As a result, future organizational changes may be even more important than technological changes in reshaping the occupational structure of the human service industry.

In an effort to take into account all the recent changes as well as the emerging trends in the human service industry, this monograph is devoted to spelling out the components of a career planning strategy in the form of working papers. Part I includes not only an assessment of the concept of career planning but also a review of how manpower needs have been assessed in the past and might be assessed in the future.

Part II is devoted to the implications of service delivery changes for manpower utilization. In particular, an assessment is made of Florida human service occupation classifications which reflect a service delivery system of the past. In an effort to describe the process of moving from the past to the future, a case study of program consultation has been included to describe a planning effort in public welfare in which manpower utilization planning accompanies new service delivery design. This transitional process then leads to questions about the organization of work groups for the future. In this regard, a discussion of human service teams is included which outlines both prior research and future implications related to the team delivery of human services.

In Part III we move from a discussion of the emerging service delivery system to an analysis of personnel planning. Despite the limited range of research related to personnel planning, an overview is provided of personnel administration as reflected primarily in public agencies. Particular reference is made to the new technology of functional job analysis and role clustering which provide new tools for the redesign of job classifications. In addition, a case study is presented in order to describe the process of job development for an entire new category of paraprofessional workers. Such job development takes on increased significance as we evaluate some of the assumptions which underlie traditional job classification schemes, some of which are terribly antiquated.

From personnel planning we move to staff development planning in Part IV by identifying some of the major issues affecting human service agencies in Florida. These staff development issues highlight the need for curriculum building in the agency for the purpose of improving in-service training. Greater attention is needed in the area of career advancement through in-service training in addition to the traditional credential system of higher education. The strategic role of staff development programming in an agency is also discussed from the perspective of information brokerage and organizational change.

Part V of this monograph is devoted to some implications for the future. Of particular importance is the need to identify and define competency. This process will require the joint planning efforts of educators as well as employers. Drawing upon the experiences of human service career system planning in Illinois, a special section is devoted to guidelines for statewide career planning. The final chapter of this monograph is a discussion of institution building in which special attention is given to the need for collaborative planning among major state agencies, including those charged with delivering services, those charged with delivering educational programs, and those charged with administering personnel systems. This monograph serves as one of several blueprints for collaborative planning in Florida for the coming decade.

Special thanks go to Mrs. Alexis Skelding for her editorial assistance with this monograph as well as Mrs. Gail Cameron, Mrs. Annie Holland, Miss Lu Marie Polivka and Miss Kay Paddock for their untiring secretarial assistance.

NOTES

[1] Samuel Osipow, *Theories of Career Development* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968), p. 239.

[2] U. S. Civil Service Commission, *Interim Guidelines for Reevaluation of Employment Requirements and Practices Pursuant to Emergency Employment Act* (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1972).

[3] American Hospital Association, *Career Mobility: A Guide for Program Planning in Health Occupations* (Chicago: A.H.A., 1972), p. 1.

[4] Eli Ginzberg, "Forward", in Charles Brecher, *Upgrading Blue Collar and Service Workers* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1972), p. viii.

[5] *Ibid*, p. xi.

[6] *Ibid*, p. 62.

[7] Community Service Administration, *Draft Revisions of Chapter II, Title 45 of the Code of Federal Regulation, Part 220 — Service Programs for Families and Children: Title IV, Parts A and B of the Social Security Act*, Washington, D. C., 1972. (Mimeographed.)

[8] Brecher, p. 107.

[9] Edward E. Schwartz and William C. Sample, *The Midway Office: An Experiment in the Organization of Work Groups* (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1972).

Assessing Manpower Need For Career Planning

Philip L. Smith

Over the past several years there has been a great deal written about new methods of manpower utilization, new technologies for assessing manpower need and new conceptualizations for manpower planning and service delivery. Numerous writers — Teare, McPheeters, Fine (Sidney), Sobey, Gardner, Riessman, Pearl, Wiley, Fine (Jean), Barker, and Briggs, to name just a few — have prepared works on such topics as the new careers concept, the paraprofessional revolution in manpower, the team concept of service delivery and new concepts and technologies for revising systems of staff deployment, personnel administration, and in-service training. Unfortunately, as one examines some of these new concepts and technologies such as functional job analysis developed by the W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, the role model developed by the Southern Regional Education Board (S.R.E.B.), and the team concept of service delivery developed by Robert Barker and Thomas Briggs from Syracuse University,[1] few have adequately been field tested or filtered down into an operational level in human service organizations. While some work has been done with functional job analysis by a few Departments of Public Welfare and some agencies have experimented with the team concept of service delivery, new concepts and technologies still remain largely untested in the field.

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Large human service organizations often have neither the time nor the resources to engage in a research and demonstration strategy directed at new methods of manpower utilization in service delivery. Educational planning projects of the Florida Board of Regents have addressed this problem over the past several years by conducting research and demonstration efforts in the field testing and application of new concepts and technologies in manpower utilization, one such example being in the area of corrections.[2] Experimentation with new models for manpower utilization produced a number of observations which can be helpful to agency program planners and administrators for assessing manpower needs in the human service industry and to educators in designing curricula.

National Trends

Human service organizations nationwide are experimenting with new worker types — indigenous and non-indigenous paraprofessionals, the new technicians (graduates of two year programs in a variety of human service areas), and the undergraduate human service majors, as well as new methods of service delivery. Consequently, these same organizations are experimenting with new work roles for existing worker types. Federal agencies, most notably the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, are encouraging their state counterparts to formalize planning structures for manpower development. Consequently, agency staff development units and personnel administration systems are receiving needed attention.

Increased attention has been given to finding ways to recruit, educate, employ, and effectively utilize human service manpower with less than a Master's degree to work in a variety of program areas ranging from health to corrections. Rapidly accelerating programming, drastically redesigned service delivery systems, and pending federal legislation are forcing human service organizations nationwide to examine systems of manpower utilization and to create planning structures designed to infuse the emerging area of manpower planning into program development. These developments are shifting discussion away from describing personnel merely on the basis of credentials and moving toward analyzing what workers do, predicting what they can do, and finally deciding what they should be doing. In addition, the products of human service programs in institutions of higher education are also being critically examined. As pointed out by Dr. Jean Fine in an H.E.W. manpower research publication, "Current developments indicate a trend both to increased personnel specialization on the one hand, and the emergence of new 'generalist' roles on the other."[3]

Distinctions Between Demand and Need

In the current literature on planning for manpower utilization the terms "manpower demand" and "manpower need" are often used interchangeably. While distinctions between these two terms may not be critical for those involved on a daily basis with administering human service programs or for those engaged in the daily business of training workers, the distinction does become critical for those engaged in the business of manpower planning. Manpower demand should be used to refer to the number and kinds of workers, either currently required or projected over a period of time, by human service organizations based upon the manpower utilization system as it exists at any given point in time. For example, given an agency that provides child welfare services to a specified population, manpower demand could be projected over a period of time taking into account such factors as the range of personnel currently providing services, average caseload size, certain demographic characteristics, etc.

On the other hand, manpower need should be used to refer to the numbers and kinds of workers deemed desirable to perform a set of functions which can be extracted from a set of desirable organizational objectives. Projections of manpower need are not necessarily based upon current utilization. For example, as juvenile corrections agencies move toward regionalizing their services with a de-emphasis on institutional programming they develop specific program objectives. To determine their manpower needs, analysis of the work required and the worker activity necessary to accomplish their stated objectives would be required. Jobs, in turn, would be developed based on that analysis and worker types would be identified. This is obviously a process that must be repeated periodically as new program directions emerge and objectives are reevaluated. Simply stated, *manpower demand* refers to either the current or projected requirements of any human service organization based on current activities and systems of staff deployment; whereas *manpower need* is based on a definition of desirable accomplishments over a period of time and what is required in the way of personnel to accomplish stated objectives.

As we look at the manpower literature of the 6O's we find little distinction made between manpower demand and need. The 1965 H.E.W. report *Closing the Gap . . . In Social Work Manpower* provides an example in one human service profession.[4] At the time of its publication, this report was considered to be a milestone in the area of manpower planning for social work. Although it reflects the concerns of the field relative to differential staffing, little is mentioned about the application of new technologies and the assessment of manpower need. Also, no distinction is made between manpower demand and need. To a large extent projections and recommendations were based on an analysis of what then existed in social welfare organizations, with only limited consideration of the growing trend toward differential staffing. As with several manpower reports of that period, one of the recommendations was to triple, as rapidly as possible, the annual number of graduates from schools of social work and at the same time accelerated production was recommended at the Baccalaureate level. However, the report did not address itself to the problem of distinguishing between functions of the Master's of Social Work and the Baccalaureate degree holder, though it did acknowledge the desirability to conduct research and demonstration efforts in this area.

It is much easier to project manpower demand, based on existing statistical data, than attempt to analyze manpower need. The documentation and projection of manpower need implies and requires the application of a systematic approach to not only evaluating current staffing procedures but also the short and long-range service objectives of the organization. This in turn requires the development or adaptation of technology for the purpose of sophisticated manpower planning.

We have seen increased utilization of several categories of paraprofessional workers, the emergence of the human service technician in several fields of practice, increased recognition of the Baccalaureate graduate, and redesigned work roles for the Master's level worker. We have also seen the development or adaptation of new concepts and technologies for manpower planning in social welfare. The functional job analysis approach and the S.R.E.B. role model can be used both as conceptual approaches for categorizing worker activities and as observational techniques for analyzing procedures of work assignment and for making management decisions about work redistribution and job redesign.

Understanding Service Delivery Systems

As we talk about assessing the manpower needs of human service organizations it is important for us to understand the nature and components of service delivery systems. The term "service delivery systems" is usually used to refer to how human service organizations organize themselves to deliver a wide range of service. In looking at service delivery systems it is important to view not only the mechanisms for service delivery but also system targets, timing (the point at which resources are brought to bear), and the constraints operating on any given system.

As one views any service delivery system, it is important to take both an historical and futuristic perspective. The ways in which human services are organized and delivered (whether they are categorical assistance programs or services to retarded children) depend largely on the value orientation of the society at large. These value orientations shape federal legislation which in turn determines the amount and kinds of resources expended in different program areas; however, value orientations are subject to change and public social policies that shape our human service delivery systems are in a perpetual state of redesign. The fields of mental health and mental retardation provide an excellent example of this phenomenon. Changing attitudes about the mentally ill and mentally retarded have resulted in a shift in our public social policies regarding services to these two groups. In the past several years, we have seen a dramatic movement from "warehousing" to community-based treatment. Not only have there been drastic changes in the kinds of services provided and the way in which they are delivered, but also in our definition of target populations.

As we take a futuristic view of service delivery systems we must be aware of emerging patterns of service delivery and new client populations. It is important to analyze service delivery systems relative to degrees of prescription and discretion. What is legislated? What is set by policy? What is open for negotiation? Public welfare is an example of a service delivery system that is highly prescribed by legislation and policy. The new Community Service Administration service regulations presently pending will undoubtedly prescribe public welfare service even further.[5]

However it is important to note that even in highly prescribed systems a great deal of discretion still exists. For example, if you examine the new Community Service Administration service regulations you will find that while the adjectives of service delivery — what services, to what kind of populations, in what numbers — have been highly prescribed, the adverbs of service delivery — how services will be delivered, when services will be delivered, and where services will be delivered — are open to negotiation.

The S.R.E.B. role model can be a valuable tool in helping us to understand and analyze the nature of the service delivery system. This model has been described as a developmental approach to manpower utilization in which jobs in an organization are developed through an analytical process which begins with an identification of client and system needs. The first step in this process is a documentation of the range of needs presented to a human service organization by its clientele. The functions or objectives of that organization are then derived from both the documentation of client needs as well as the implied needs of the system itself. System needs may be categorized as intrinsic and extrinsic, with intrinsic referring to the needs of the professions and personnel that direct human service organizations, and extrinsic referring to those societal demands placed upon the system, quite often in the form of legislation.

As agency functions or objectives have been derived from this process, it is then possible to infer a set of worker roles. S.R.E.B. has projected twelve such roles: outreach, broker, advocate, evaluator, teacher, behavior changer, mobilizer, consultant, community planner, care giver, administrator and data manager.[6] These twelve roles can then be grouped or clustered into centers of worker activity or jobs. The criteria for role clustering rest within the organization and its definition of need.

The S.R.E.B. role model provides us with a new way to conceptualize the nature of service delivery systems and how jobs are developed within a human service organization. As one attempts to analyze and document manpower need, it is critical to understand and evaluate all components of the service delivery system rather than just simply assessing the nature of the work presently being performed.

The functional job analysis approach of the W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research provides us with another technology for assessing the manpower needs of human service organizations. Functional job analysis was developed as an industrial model approximately twenty years ago. Only recently has it been adapted to human service organizations. As a useful technology it is: 1) a conceptual system for defining dimensions of work activity and thus a way of conceiving the world of work; 2) an observational method for looking at worker activity; and 3) a method of analysis to evaluate the design of work and its performance.[7]

As a systems approach for deciding what work must be done and what workers must do in an organization, functional job analysis depends upon the ability of the organization to explicitly define its purpose, mid-range goals and short-range objectives. It is assumed that within an organization (system) all interrelated components (subsystems) and their activities are coordinated in some logical fashion according to a master purpose, and that the inputs of the subsystems are converted into outputs of the total system. As the organization (system) states purpose, goals, and objectives, component parts (subsystems) convert organizational objectives into subsystem goals which are in turn converted into subsystem objectives. For example, a state juvenile corrections agency (system) may have set an objective to reduce the number of juveniles held in detention by 5O%. A bureau charged with responsibility for juvenile foster homes (subsystem) may take this objective as a bureau goal. One of the bureau objectives derived from this goal may be to establish 2OO fester homes across the state within one year.

Each subsystem objective is analyzed relative to what work must be done and what workers must do in order to accomplish that objective. This process is referred to as task analysis. A series of task statements are developed for each subsystem objective. These task statements contain information about performance standards, training content, and the relationship of tasks to cognitive, interpersonal and physical phenomena. Additional examples of this new technology can be found in Chapter 7. The application of functional job analysis allows the analyst to make decisions about an organization's manpower needs without being bound by the existing system of personnel deployment. This allows the organization to redesign jobs and reallocate personnel in such a manner as to most efficiently and effectively accomplish their objectives.

Both functional job analysis and the S.R.E.B. role model can be used to identify and project manpower needs in the human service organization. While the S.R.E.B. role model seems to be more productive in analyzing service delivery systems and in testing the validity of organizational objectives, the functional job analysis approach can be used to best advantage in identifying and describing the various components of worker roles. Both of these new technologies hold promise for program, personnel, and staff development planners.

Planning Strategies for Assessing Manpower Need

Comprehensive manpower planning on a statewide basis is a relatively new phenomenon nationwide. Recent efforts in Florida have demonstrated the viability of educational planning closely linked to documenting manpower needs in the field.[*] Project activities in Florida (with grant support from the Department of Health, Education and Welfare and the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration) have strongly emphasized collaborative planning on the part of agency representatives and educators. The planning strategy that evolved from those efforts centered on two questions of primary importance. How can the human service organization adapt and best utilize the latest manpower concepts and technologies so that: 1) the quality of service to clients is improved; 2) the range of services provided is extended; 3) the objectives of the agency can be met; and 4) the career aspirations of its workers can be satisfied? And secondly, how can the educational institutions redesign curricula so that: 1) academic preparation is more relevant to the field; 2) graduates can more easily secure jobs that they have been trained for; and 3) graduates can move from one educational program to another without needless repetition or excessive loss of credits?

Building on the planning accomplishments of the past, the State University System of Florida in collaboration with the Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services[*] with grant support from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare has established an Office of Career Planning and Curriculum Development for the Human Services. As service delivery systems change, work functions will also change. The application of new technologies can be used to analyze those changes relative to new manpower needs. This project will be directed toward an application of new concepts and technologies in manpower planning with particular attention to career mobility. The project will seek to delineate competence for various levels of human service personnel in programs across the state, work toward the development of continuing education programs for human service workers, and encourage the creation of a more workable educational continuum in the human services.

The major premise underlying the development of the Office of Career Planning and Curriculum Development for the Human Services is that agency representatives and educators must work collaboratively toward the accomplishment of the previously stated objectives. Previous planning experiences have indicated that in order to plan for redesign in program and curriculum one must first immerse himself in the concerns of the marketplace — the human service industry. As the thrust of this project is directed toward the concept of career planning, consideration must be given to the variety of professions as well as allied technicians and paraprofessionals that work within the broad human service industry. As noted by Frank Riessman and Arthur Pearl, the concept of careers implies both permanence and the opportunity for upward mobility.[10] The concept of careers has implications not only for the worker but for the agency in which he works and for the educational institution that prepares him to take his place within the human service industry. Educational programming at all levels and in all forms can be reconceptualized in terms of career preparation. At the same time the concept of careers has a great deal of meaning for the redesign of personnel classification systems and staff development programming.

As human services in a variety of program areas have rapidly expanded nationwide several writers in the field have identified certain properties within human service systems that are not unlike those of an industry — thus the term "human service industry." The concept of a human service industry indicates certain planning directions which recognize the importance of coordinating activities among various component parts within the system. Consequently career planning can be approached from three primary perspectives: service delivery, personnel administration, and staff development.

Comprehensive career planning begins with an assessment of the service delivery system and its components. Service delivery systems must be thoroughly analyzed before manpower needs can be documented. An identification of worker competence and the most effective and efficient methods for staff deployment flows from analysis of what services are to be delivered, how they are to be delivered, to whom they are to be delivered, and for what purpose they are to be delivered.

As decisions are made about work distribution and the creation of new jobs, attention must be directed at the personnel administration system. As service delivery systems are redesigned and new worker types utilized, job classifications, qualifying examinations and performance standards must be evaluated and redesigned. Attention should be directed at functionally defining jobs as they flow from an analysis of service delivery systems. At the same time, systems of personnel administration must be viewed relative to the career lattice concept. Human service organizations have responsibilities both to clients and to workers. A sound system of personnel administration should not only select and utilize workers in such a manner as to provide the best possible services to clients but also to accommodate the career aspiration of workers.

As job classifications, qualifying examinations, and performance standards are redesigned, new training material must be created to prepare workers to perform at the highest possible level of competence consonant with their job functions as well as to provide a mechanism for career mobility. The careers concept adds a new facet to agency staff development as training is related both to job performance and career advancement.

The Need for Research and Demonstration

Human service organizations are often faced with legislative imperatives and new policies relating to new programming, to the redesign of service delivery systems, and to the employment and utilization of new worker types. By necessity, the response of the human service organizations in such times quite often does not fall into the category of planned change. For this reason experimentation from the field with both new patterns of service delivery and new patterns of manpower utilization is grossly lacking. Whereas many human service organizations believe that they cannot afford the luxury of research and demonstration programs, it is becoming increasingly apparent that they cannot afford to be without them. Previous planning experiences have indicated success in utilizing students in field instruction for the purpose of demonstrating new methods of service delivery and manpower utilization.[11] While this is a viable and productive planning strategy, human service organizations must move to expand their efforts in this area by utilizing their own personnel. A well conceived and adequately funded research and demonstration program in human service organizations can serve as a mechanism for institutionalizing the products of planned change.

NOTES

[1] For a discussion of these models see: Sidney A Fine and Wretha W. Wiley, *An Introduction to Functional Job Analysis* (Washington, D. C.: The W. E. Upjohn Insti-

tute for Employment Research, 1971). Robert J. Teare, Ph.D. and Harold L. McPheeters, M.D., *Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare* (Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board, 1970). Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs, *Using Teams to Deliver Social Services* (Syracuse: School of Social Work, Syracuse University, 1969).

[2] Michael J. Austin, Edward Kelleher, and Philip L. Smith (eds.), *The Field Consortium: Manpower Development and Training in Social Welfare and Corrections* (Tallahassee: State University System of Florida and the Division of Community Colleges, 1972).

[3] Jean Szaloczi Fine, "Issues in Manpower Development Program Planning," *Working Papers No. 1* (Washington: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1971).

[4] ________________, *Closing the Gap . . . In Social Work Manpower* (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1965).

[5] Draft amendment to Chapter II of Title 45 of the Code of Federal Regulations.

[6] Teare and McPheeters, *Op. Cit.*

[7] Fine and Wiley, *Op. Cit.*

[8] The State University System of Florida and the Division of Community Colleges have operated statewide planning projects in the areas of Social Work and Criminal Justice. Reports of some of these project activities are contained in a monograph series entitled *Collaborative Planning in Higher Education for the Professions* (Tallahassee: State University System of Florida and Division of Community Colleges, 1972).

[9] Florida's umbrella agency for the human services including Divisions of Administration, Planning and Evaluation, Family Services, Youth Services, Mental Health, Mental Retardation, Corrections, Vocational Rehabilitation and Health.

[10] Frank Riessman, "The New Careers Concept", *American Child*, Vol. 49, No. 1, (Winter, 1967).

[11] Austin, Kelleher and Smith, *Op. Cit.*

PART II

MANPOWER FOR SERVICE DELIVERY

Manpower Utilization And Career Mobility

Alexis H. Skelding and Philip L. Smith

Systematic planning for manpower utilization is receiving increased nationwide attention by human service agencies. Recent research has questioned the traditional pattern of utilizing a narrow range of personnel (primarily Masters and Baccalaureate level staff) to provide human services, and has suggested that this pattern be replaced by planning for the differential use of a broad range of manpower. Currently, there is a general consensus that not every job in the human services requires a professional worker with a Master's degree. Personnel with different or less educational preparation can and should be used to deliver human services. The concept of differential staffing has been given added impetus with the influx of significant numbers of paraprofessionals, New Careerists, and indigenous workers in many human service agencies. However, in planning for differential manpower utilization, one critical issue that has frequently been overlooked is the understanding and management of the various structures for career mobility.

Career mobility is a concept that is based on the assumption that all employees should have the opportunity to advance in terms of responsibility and income as well as into related organizations. Thus career mobility may

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be defined as a change in a person's job status, i.e., a change in the nature of the duties and activities of the position and/or in the organization in which they are performed.[1] Central to planning for career mobility are the concepts of the career ladder and the career lattice. The career ladder refers to vertical mobility within the agency and emphasizes career advancement planned so that no structural barrier will keep an entry level employee from rising to the top of the organization. Since career mobility has traditionally been linked to academic degrees, this would suggest exploring other alternatives to advancement within the organization. The concept of the career lattice refers to horizontal mobility among agencies, where emphasis is placed on the nature of the work performed rather than on agency-specific descriptions of the worker or the division in which he works. Thus horizontal mobility should be planned within a career system to facilitate advancement among related agencies. Ideally, career ladders and lattices will be arranged so that no structural barriers prevent any employees from advancing to the top of the organization.

Career Mobility — To What End

The successful placement of large numbers of New Careerists, paraprofessionals, and indigenous workers in many human service agencies has resulted in a career system that is split among three rather poorly connected levels. The gaps between low, middle, and high level jobs make it extremely difficult to advance in the career system without obtaining the traditionally required academic credentials. In examining the objectives of the New Careers movement, which has led to the increased number of paraprofessionals, it is clear that the success of the movement depended not only on the availability of entry level jobs but also on provisions for advancement to professional status within the various career systems. As Frank Riessman and Arthur Pearl have observed in describing the New Careers Program: "Careers imply: (1) permanence and (2) opportunity for upward mobility."[2]

The major objectives of the New Careers movement were: "(1) to provide meaningful employment for the unemployed, and at the same time, offer opportunities for members of the target population to help others with similar difficulties; (2) to alleviate the manpower shortages that have occurred as a result of the rapid expansion of the human services; (3) to provide opportunities for entry into the human service professions for those who have been unable to avail themselves of the traditional, credentialed routes; and (4) to improve the delivery and quality of services by using community persons as agency workers."[3] Since the implementation of the New Careers movement, one of the major problems has been the lack of career ladders and lattices allowing advancement within the organization by methods other than academic credentials. The concept of career mobility has been difficult to implement at the lower levels of the career system primarily because a restructuring of the agency's job structures and training standards would be required. In addition, planning for career mobility in human service organizations involves a recognition of the organization's accountability to both the target population and the workers in the organization. Thus the career system must not only select and utilize workers so that clients are provided with the best possible services, but it also must accommodate the career aspirations of the workers. Since many human service organizations have been neither able nor willing to reorganize their career systems, few paraprofessionals have been able to bridge the gap between entry level jobs and middle level jobs.

Career mobility is not an issue that is problematic at only the lower levels of the career system. As staffing patterns have been expanded in human service organizations, career mobility is becoming a predominant issue at the upper levels of the system. Workers in middle and high level positions are demanding avenues for advancement, thus systemwide planning for career mobility has become a critical issue in personnel administration for the human services.

Creating Career Systems

Although career mobility has only recently surfaced as an issue in human service organizations, it has received considerable attention by various research organizations and governmental agencies. The early studies of career mobility programs for paraprofessionals and New Careerists have led to further attention to the dynamics of career mobility for the entire system of the human services.

In 1969, the National Committee on Employment of Youth conducted a study of a small sample of those agencies that were employing their graduates. The major objective of this study was to determine those multi-variant factors having an impact on the career mobility of a selected group of paraprofessionals. Generally, the study showed that:

1. The paraprofessionals had proved beyond a doubt that they were more than capable of performing a wide variety of generalist tasks in the human services, performing them better in many cases than the professionals.
2. The employing agencies generally rewarded the paraprofessionals with sizeable raises, much higher than many had expected.
3. The paraprofessionals rewarded the agencies in turn by being extremely stable employees, although this limited movement to other

jobs was probably significantly influenced by the lack of better opportunities elsewhere.

4. The study confirmed that opportunities for genuine career advancement for paraprofessionals were either severely limited, or completely nonexistent. The obstacles to career advancement were many, including civil service requirements, professional standards, lack of supplementary training and education; but one obstacle dominated them all: the insistence in all but one agency on baccalaureate degrees for eligibility to higher level jobs.[4]

The study also showed that there was a serious absence of career lattices planned for the paraprofessionals. Standards establishing equivalency among different agencies in the human services for experience in paraprofessional jobs were virtually nonexistent. Thus the employing agencies and the employment counselors had difficulty in directing paraprofessionals to alternative job opportunities. Based on these findings, it was recommended that Congress and agencies funding paraprofessional programs issue a national declaration guaranteeing not only equal employment opportunity but also equal opportunity for advancement. It was further suggested that this policy should be implemented by developing measures designed to help paraprofessionals advance within the current framework of agency hiring policies and job structures; by developing measures designed to assist agencies in changing that framework to accommodate paraprofessional advancement; and by designing measures to help the fields of service re-evaluate the total framework of their services and use of manpower.

The United States Civil Service Commission is currently conducting a study that tests the feasibility of the "bridge-job" concept by applying job restructuring in an agency as a means of facilitating upward mobility.[5] Social and Rehabilitation Service of H.E.W. is one agency participating in the study, where major emphasis has been placed on developing opportunities for employees in dead-end jobs to cross over to positions not customarily filled by promotion from the lower levels, e.g., Social Science Analyst. Job restructuring is the process of realigning job duties to develop technician-type or "bridge" jobs. In this project, it is being tested as one means of spanning the gap between the minimally skilled and the skilled occupational ladders. In addition selection criteria are being developed to determine who should advance to the "bridge" jobs; and training needs are being identified to design training programs that will prepare employees for "bridge" and higher positions. Although the results of this project are still being evaluated, it is significant in that it demonstrates one way of providing employees in low-level jobs with opportunities to develop and advance within and across occupational lines.

In addition to individual studies directed to developing career mobility programs for paraprofessionals, several human service professions have issued guidelines designed to assist their members in developing career mobility programs. For example, the American Hospital Association recently issued a statement encouraging its members to develop career mobility programs which will give employees opportunities to advance in terms of responsibility and income.[6] The Association suggests that careful planning of these programs will result in a better use of available manpower and a chance to improve the quality of patient care. The guidelines state that career mobility programs should seek to develop job ladders and employment opportunities within the health institution; and to develop educational ladders and programs that will provide employees with appropriate educational preparation for ascending these job ladders into new positions within the institution. Further, the institutions should plan continuing education and training programs, with assistance from the educational system.

Another statement supporting the development of career mobility programs was prepared by the School of Social Work at West Virginia University for the National Association of Social Workers.[7] This document provides guidelines on job roles, functions, and training for a series of job levels for personnel providing social services. In regard to career mobility programs, it is suggested that manpower development and utilization in the social services should have a planned career system that will provide a sufficient number of job levels to establish a continuum of logical steps from one level to another, and to offer opportunities for vertical and horizontal mobility. Further, job descriptions should be structured so as to provide a career lattice with different entry levels, opportunities for multiple careers, and horizontal and vertical mobility. Career mobility programs should also provide for a continuing program of career development for all social service personnel, through advanced education in educational institutions, pre-service and in-service training, and continuing education programs.

While these two policy statements provide evidence of significant progress in two human service professions, relatively few human service organizations have been able to implement these guidelines. One notable exception has been a human service career system planning effort in the state of Illinois.[8] The Human Services Manpower Career Center in Illinois has assisted in developing three career systems in Mental Health, the Adult Division of Corrections, and Children and Family Services. The primary goal of all three efforts was to maximize the possibilities within a human service delivery system for all employees to advance themselves in terms of increased responsibility, earnings, personal growth and job satisfaction, while at the same time fulfilling broad management goals and expectations.[9] Generally, efforts in all three systems focused on structuring job descriptions so that vertical and horizontal mobility was provided for all employees. In addition, formal educational requirements were minimal, with career development and skill training provided by the various Departments becoming the primary basis for upward mobility.

One of the most comprehensive conceptual studies of career mobility in the human services was recently completed by the Social and Rehabilitation Service of H. E. W.[10] This study was designed to review what is known about worker job mobility, especially in the human services, and to organize this knowledge into a meaningful and valid conceptual framework. Moreover, the study indicated suggestions for improving the management and career design of workers in the human services. Based on a review of the literature, it was suggested that career mobility includes the initial entry of a worker into a job or occupation; employee turnover; and internal mobility. This conceptual framework provided the basis for recommendations designed to improve the structure of career mobility in the human services. To summarize, it was suggested that career mobility programs should provide job opportunities for a broad range of personnel, especially those who do not possess the traditional academic degrees. Concurrently, human service agencies must recognize their increased responsibility in providing training programs for all workers that will facilitate professional growth and development, and advancement into supervisory and administrative positions.

This selective review of recent literature on career mobility in the human services supports the conclusion that there has been a serious lack of career mobility planning in the human services, especially for indigenous and paraprofessional workers. However, this review also indicates that the situation is changing, particularly with the release of two policy statements supporting career mobility programs in health and in the social services. Since many professional organizations and human service agencies are now recognizing the importance of creating more job opportunities for personnel at all levels, more attention must be directed to planning and implementing career mobility in the human services.

Career Issues in Florida

The major public human service agency in Florida is the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services which includes the following line divisions: the Division of Family Services, the Division of Mental Retardation, the Division of Youth Services, the Division of Mental Health, the Division of Health, the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, and the Division of Corrections. In analyzing the job classification system used in this Department, human service job classifications were divided into four categories which roughly approximate four various educational levels. This schema was used since the present classification system is based on the concept of educational level. As shown in Table 1, the four levels included:

1. Level 1: The Entry Aide or New Careerist Positions (High School or less)
2. Level 2: The Apprentice or Technical Assistant Positions (Associate degree)
3. Level 3: The Associate, Generalist, or Journeyman Positions (Baccalaureate degree)
4. Level 4: The Master, Professional, or Specialist Positions (Advanced degree)

When job classifications for each of the seven line divisions were categorized by educational levels, it was found that in terms of the total number of classifications, all Divisions were heavily weighted at Levels 3 and 4, with a minority of classifications at Levels 1 and 2. Further, comparisons between Levels 3 and 4 showed that there were considerably more classifications at Level 3. When this finding was analyzed in terms of actual numbers of personnel employed in these positions, the number employed per position at Level 3 far exceeded the number employed at each Level 4 position. Another salient finding was the scarcity of classifications at Level 2. In view of the increasing number of two year human service programs in Florida, it would appear that the preparation of these two year graduates has outdistanced or preceded the development of job classifications within the Department.

In addition to categorizing jobs in terms of educational level, the system was analyzed in terms of horizontal and vertical mobility. This analysis indicated that there was some transferability between Divisions by level, showing a degree of horizontal mobility. For example, a Level 4 Clinical Social Worker can work in the Division of Mental Retardation, the Division of Youth Services, the Division of Health, and the Division of Mental Health, and can also work as a Caseworker in the Division of Family Services. Similar examples of transferability between Divisions were found at other levels; however, a number of classifications had very limited transferability even though the job classes appeared to be very similar. For example, a Level 4 Mental Health Training and Research Director can also work as a Training and Research Director in Mental Retardation; however, two years of additional experience would be needed to work as a Research and Treatment Director in the Division of Corrections. A Level 3 Research Director in the Division of Youth Services could not work as a Research Director in the Division of Mental Health (Alcoholic Rehabilitation) without further

Table 1
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND REHABILITATIVE SERVICES
MANPOWER DISTRIBUTION BY A REPRESENTATIVE
SAMPLE OF HUMAN SERVICE JOB CLASSIFICATIONS*

ADVANCED DEGREE	4	63 = Total # Job Classes	EXAMPLES a. In-Service Training Director b. Voc. Rehab. Supervising Director c. Clinical Social Services Director d. Social Service Director e. Caseworker f. Caseworker Supervisor g. Family Services Program Director, Assistant Director h. Clinical Social Worker I, II, III i. Mental Health Program Analyst I, II	**MASTER - PROFESSIONAL - SPECIALIST**
BACCALAUREATE	3	104 = Total # Job Classes	EXAMPLES a. Mental Health Representative b. Field Services Youth Counselor I, II c. Field Services Youth Supervisor d. Director of Cottage Life e. Social Worker f. Family & Children's Supervisor I, II g. Voc. Rehab. Counselor I, II h. Social Service Worker i. Classification Officer I, II j. Health Field Worker I, II, III	**ASSOCIATE - GENERALIST - JOURNEYMAN**
ASSOCIATE	2	3 = Total # Job Classes	a. Behavioral Program Associate b. Rehabilitation Technician c. Family Services Aide	**APPRENTICE - TECHNICAL - ASSISTANT**
HIGHSCHOOL	1	32 = Total # Job Classes	EXAMPLES a. Cottage Parent b. In-Service Training Instructor c. Social Worker Assistant (no educational requirement) d. Psychiatric Aide e. Probation and Parole Aide f. Volunteer Services Coordinator I, II	**ENTRY - AIDE - NEW CAREERIST**

*Excludes medical and paramedical classifications as of December 1, 1971. Includes probation and parole classifications, which are technically under the Pardons and Parole Commission.

education, nor as a Training and Research Director in the Division of Mental Health, since this is a Level 4 position. These examples of non-transferability only highlight some of the inconsistencies that exist in the entire Department, viz., the same general job description often occurs at different levels in different Divisions. This would tend to indicate that while the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services (created in 1969) emphasizes a highly integrated "one-program" concept, its personnel system does not reflect a systematic, integrated approach to job classification.

In assessing the degree of vertical mobility in the system, attention was focused on determining if any job classes existed that allowed advancement to a higher level without further educational training. This analysis showed that there were no instances where a person could enter the system with minimum qualifications at one level and advance to a higher level without additional education. However, there were several cases at Level 3 where a position requiring a Baccalaureate degree plus experience could be filled by someone with a Master's degree, substituting the higher degree for experience. Thus a Master's level worker could be hired in a Level 3 position and then advance to a Level 4 position without further education. However, this should be considered as initial underemployment, where advancement to a higher level is based on the worker's original qualifications.

The final area assessed in the classification system was entrance requirements for administrative and consultative (indirect service) positions. The vast majority of these classifications, at all levels, required experience in addition to specified educational requirements. One exception to this was in the Division of Youth Services, where a Level 1 Assistant Group Treatment Leader did not require previous experience. In this regard, it was interesting to note that of all the classifications surveyed, only positions in the Division of Youth Services had any stipulations regarding in-service training.

The experience requirements for administrative and consultative positions at Level 4 are especially significant since the graduate social work program at Florida State University is now offering a major in social administration. Since nearly all administrative positions in the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services require experience in addition to the educational requirement, graduates of this program may have difficulty in securing administrative positions. Thus M.S.W. graduates with social administration specializations will probably have to enter the system in Level 4 direct service positions (e.g. Caseworker or Clinical Social Worker), which allow few opportunities for advancement to administrative positions under the present classification system.

Finally, with the exception of the Division of Youth Services, there are no stipulations for participation in in-service training programs that will enable employees to advance within the system. The absence of provisions for staff development programs to be used as one mechanism for entrance into the system or for advancement is a critical issue that needs to be evaluated in terms of its impact on career mobility.

These issues are in no way meant to be critical of the classification system, but rather reflect an attempt to cast the system into a framework for evaluating, analyzing, and identifying problem areas. With the redesign of service delivery systems, new programming, and other changes that are occurring within the Department, it is important to highlight the need for career planning and the use of emerging technologies such as functional job analysis, which is described in Chapter 7 of this monograph.

Future Directions

It has become increasingly apparent that if the movement toward differential staffing in human service organizations is to reach its fullest potential, then these organizations must be able and willing to evaluate and redesign their recruitment procedures, methods of deployment, classification systems, and in-service training programs. Since many human service organizations have not been able to reorganize their career systems, planning for career mobility has become a critical issue. The influx of significant numbers of paraprofessionals, in addition to the development of new programming and changes within many service delivery systems, has accentuated the importance of applying a systematic approach to career planning.

In building viable career systems, attention must be focused on the systems of service delivery, personnel administration, and in-service training. From the service delivery or program perspective, it is important to consider how jobs are developed and how staff are deployed. Traditionally, human service organizations have used the job factoring approach to determine worker functions, with complexity being the basis for differentiating functions at various levels. However, changing patterns of service delivery, coupled with the influx of new worker types, have vividly demonstrated the inadequacy of this approach. The S.R.E.B. "developmental approach"[11] and the "team concept" espoused by Barker and Briggs[12] are examples of innovative approaches to job structuring and staff deployment that have been developed as alternatives to job factoring. The significant point is that the human service industry must develop both the will and the technical expertise to create meaningful, interesting and productive jobs for staff at all levels, from initial entry into the system through top level administration.

When meaningful jobs have been established for personnel at all levels, careful consideration must be given to the system of personnel administration. Since most large public agencies operate with explicit, highly structured systems of personnel administration, attention should be focused on redesigning this system to institutionalize the effective utilization of personnel. In this regard, new approaches such as the role model developed by the Southern Regional Education Board and the technology of functional job analysis applied to the human services by Fine and Wiley,[13] can be used to restructure job responsibilities in the field for the purpose of formal job classification. Since functional job analysis emphasizes describing worker tasks in relation to organizational objectives, performance standards can be created that will reflect the association of worker activity with program objectives. The creation of performance standards will provide the organization with a structure for promoting personnel based on quantity and quality of work produced.

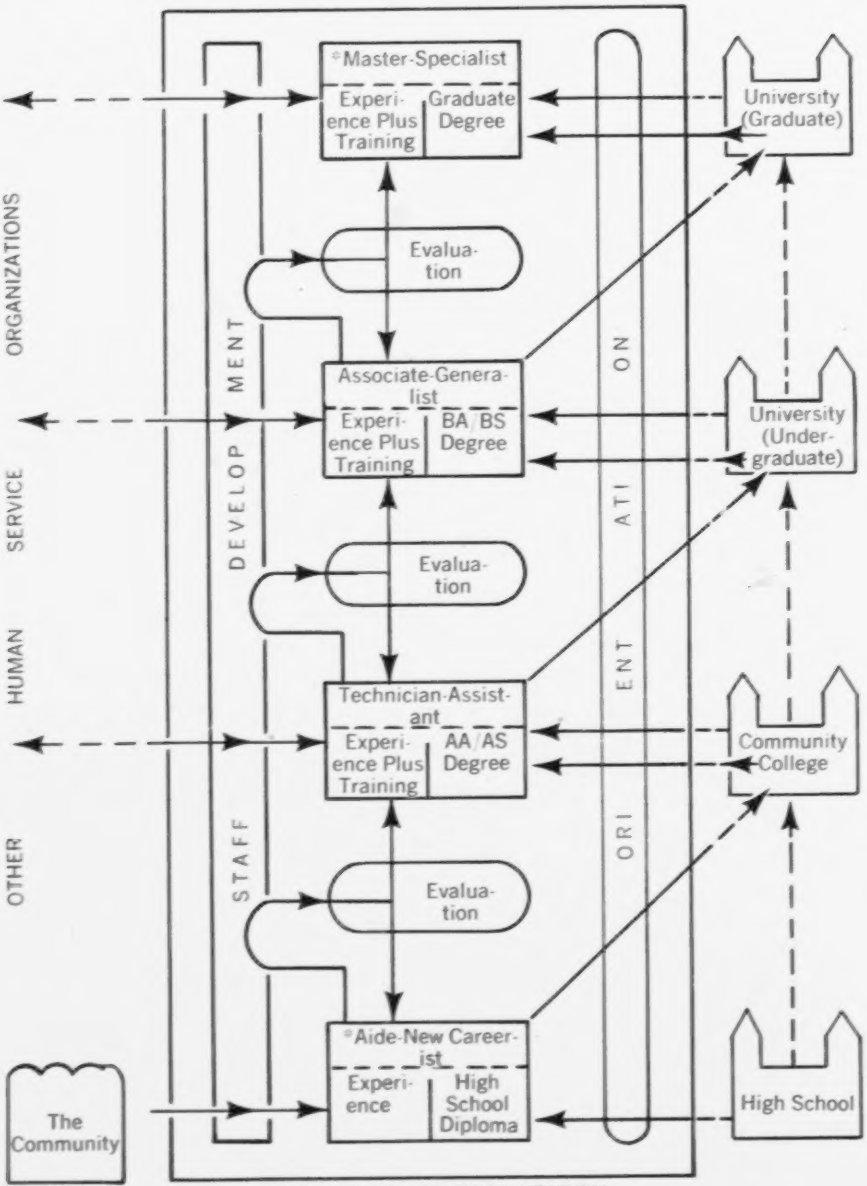
The final component of a viable career mobility system is in-service training. Since in-service training has traditionally consisted of orientation and retraining for new program responsibilities, these roles will have to be reconceptualized in the broader context of staff development. For example, this system can be expanded into the areas of on-going training for skill development and training related to job change for career advancement. Thus, in an expanded role, staff development programming will need to utilize both the internal resources of the organization in redesigning agency operated training, and the external resources of higher education in establishing comprehensive programs of university operated continuing education.

Ultimately components of a viable career system must exist in program, personnel, and training. The interface among these organizational parts, then, must be highly integrated if the career aspirations of the worker are to be served. The human service organization as a system provides for multiple entry points from both academia and practice. Advancement may occur through internal structures (i.e. experience and staff development) or via an external route (i.e. academia). Figure 1 reflects a beginning attempt to conceptualize the various levels and points of entry and exit which could be built into a career system.

As we look at this model we see that the worker may enter the system either from the field (with previous experience in human services) or from academia. In either case some orientation would be required. For the entering worker career advancement may be realized either through staff development activities including agency operated in-service training or university operated continuing education programs (short courses, workshops, seminars, work study, etc.), or formal academic training. The worker choosing to advance through the internal mechanisms of the agency (including careful attention to evaluation of performance) would obviously be involved in a more lengthy process. However, he could advance from the basic entry level

Figure I

BUILDING A CAREER SYSTEM


OTHER HUMAN SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS
STAFF DEVELOPMENT
ORIENTATION
*Master-Specialist
Experience Plus Training
Graduate Degree
Evaluation
Associate-Generalist
Experience Plus Training
BA/BS Degree
Evaluation
Technician-Assistant
Experience Plus Training
AA/AS Degree
Evaluation
*Aide-New Careerist
Experience
High School Diploma
The Community
University (Graduate)
University (Undergraduate)
Community College
High School
HUMAN SERVICE ORGANIZATION

*Level descriptions are arbitrary and do not reflect specific jobs, but rather are broad categorizations.

position to the top of the lattice without securing an academic degree. Undoubtedly he would have some exposure to academia through continuing education though he might never enroll in an academic program. On the other hand the worker may choose the academic route, in which case his career movement would probably be accelerated.

Most significantly this model for a career system provides for multiple entry and exit points — thus horizontal mobility — as well as internal and external mechanisms for advancement — thus vertical mobility. It also requires integration among programs, personnel, and training concerns into an overall schema that must draw upon the generally untapped resources of higher education. A viable system of career mobility must optimize the chances for a worker to satisfy his career aspirations, while also preserving the integrity of the system relative to productivity and responsiveness to the needs of the client population. This means that while career alternatives can be expanded for workers at all levels, they can by no means be guaranteed. Planners, program administrators, trainers, personnel officers, and educators must work together so that career systems ultimately serve as a mechanism to improve the services to those clients who seek help from the organization.

NOTES

[1] Raymond Katzell, Abraham Korman, and Edward Levine, *Research Report No. 1, Overview Study of the Dynamics of Worker Job Mobility* (Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1971), p. 4.

[2] Frank Riessman, "The New Careers Concept," *American Child*, Vol. 49, No. 1 (Winter, 1967).

[3] Gerald S. Berman, Marie R. Haug, and Marvin B. Sussman, *Bridges and Ladders: A Descriptive Study in New Careers, Working Paper No. 2* (Cleveland, Ohio: Case Western Reserve University, Department of Sociology, November, 1971), p. iv.

[4] Carolyn R. Gould, *Career Mobility for Paraprofessionals in Human Service Agencies* (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Labor, 1969), p. 113.

[5] United States Civil Service Commission, "Upward Mobility Through Job Restructuring," April, 1972.

[6] American Hospital Association, *Career Mobility: A Guide for Program Planning in Health Occupations* (Chicago: American Hospital Association, 1972).

[7] Margaret Emery, "Manpower Development and Utilization for Social Workers," University of West Virginia for the National Association of Social Workers, 1972. (Mimeographed.)

[8] Myrna Bordelon Kassel, *Career Systems in State Human Service Agencies* (Chicago: Human Services Manpower Career Center, 1971). For a more complete discussion, see Chapter 14 of this monograph.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 2.

[10] Katzell, Korman, and Levine, *Op. Cit.*

[11] Robert J. Teare and Harold L. McPheeters, *Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare* (Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board, 1970).

[12] Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs, *Using Teams to Deliver Social Services* (New York: Syracuse University Press, 1969).

[13] Sidney A. Fine and Wretha W. Wiley, *An Introduction to Functional Job Analysis* (Kalamazoo, Michigan: W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 1971).

Manpower Planning In Public Welfare: A Case Study Of Program Consultation

Susan Yelton

The 1967 Amendments to the Social Security Act have brought about sweeping changes in the character of public welfare agencies and the services they deliver. Although approximately two years passed before the federal guidelines were available, their release found public welfare agencies reacting to another crisis.[1] Traditionally, public welfare agencies have not been in a position to act in anticipation of environmental change. Rather, they have reacted to pressures of the moment, frequently pressures of crisis proportion. This seems to occur because changes are generally mandated by the federal government which legitimizes various aspects of state and local welfare services.

For the Florida Division of Family Services, the crisis brought about by the 1967 Amendments to the Social Security Act meant a complete revision in organizational operations. However, planned change developed slowly and by 1971 it was evident that a viable solution was necessary to carry out the

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federal mandates. Consequently, in mid-1971 a new committee of mid-managerial personnel who represented all divisional service programs as well as staff development was appointed. It was the task of the committee to formulate an interim plan for a new statewide service delivery system. If organizational change was to take place both in policy and practice, the roles of the employees would have to be changed and the new role expectations clearly defined. The members of the service delivery committee had many years of experience in program planning but few were technically skilled in manpower planning. At this point, technical assistance was requested from the Florida Board of Regents' staff who had expertise in manpower planning. The sanction received by the consultants lent legitimization to their presence and credibility to their reports.

Theoretical Considerations

A large complex organization such as the Florida Division of Family Services should be viewed as an open system which constantly interacts with its environment. Environmental influences are integrally related to the functioning of a larger social system and require constant study of the forces that impinge upon it.[2] However, all systems have boundaries which separate them from their environment; each has a number of subsystems within it which have to be functioning together to form a dynamic unity. Such a social system performs certain necessary functions:

"1. Clearly defines and controls the role expectations of its members,
2. Reduces uncertainty in relationships among the individuals,
3. Satisfies the shared needs and goals of its members,
4. Survives as a system by meeting new concerns of its members and new demands directed toward it from the outside."[3]

Organizations also have a life cycle. John Gardner views people and plants, as well as organizations as having "a green and supple youth, a time of flourishing strength, and gnarled old age. . . . An organization may go from youth to old age in two or three decades, or it may last for centuries."[4] The timing will depend upon how well the organization maintains its survival mechanisms.

Lippitt conceives that not only do organizations have a life cycle, but they also have stages of potential growth in their life cycle. Each experiences crisis and situations demanding management and/or organizational responses that are indispensable if the organization is to achieve its next stage of growth. He calls this the situational confrontation model. This model views the organization in terms of a multifaceted "personality" or organism. It stresses the need for reality assessment within the organization with respect

Figure 1

STAGES OF ORGANIZATIONAL GROWTH*

Developmental stage	Critical concern	Key issue	Consequences if concern is not met
BIRTH	1. To create a new organization	What to risk	Frustration and inaction
	2. To survive as a viable system	What to sacrifice	Death of organization Further subsidy by "faith" capital
YOUTH	3. To gain stability	How to organize	Reactive, crisis-dominated organization Opportunistic rather than self-directing attitudes and policies
	4. To gain reputation and develop pride	How to review and evaluate	Difficulty in attracting good personnel and clients Inappropriate, overly aggressive, and distorted image building
MATURITY	5. To achieve uniqueness and adaptability	Whether and how to change	Unnecessarily defensive or competitive attitudes; diffusion of energy Loss of most creative personnel
	6. To contribute to society	Whether and how to share	Possible lack of public respect and appreciation Bankruptcy or profit loss

*Source: (Lippitt, p. 29).

to its present state of affairs, for identification of the key issues of concern the organization is now facing, and for planned efforts to confront that situation with those activities or actions which will help cope with the present situation to achieve growth for the people, the process and the organization. (See Figure 1)

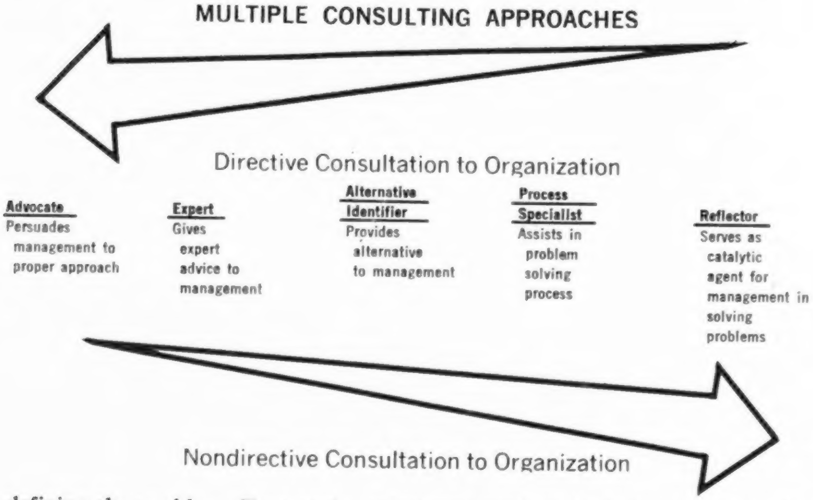
However, Lippitt also makes it perfectly clear that organizational renewal may occur at any time in the growth cycle. He defines organizational renewal as the process of initiating, creating and confronting needed changes so as to make it possible for organizations to become or remain viable, to adapt to new conditions, to solve problems, to learn from experiences and to move toward greater organizational maturity. Public welfare in Florida was undergoing the organizational renewal process and this provided the basis for consultation on the differential use of manpower.

Viewing public welfare agencies according to the Lippitt model of an organization's life cycle, it is possible to place such agencies in the mature stage where uniqueness and adaptability are of critical concern. Recalling that organizations are open systems which exist in an uncertain environment, in order to survive they must conserve stability in the face of recurring disintegrative pressures from the environment. Just as total societies develop a social structure, laws, traditions and culture as a way of stabilizing themselves, so do organizations. It is within this framework that consultants are often brought in to examine the existing formal and informal organizational structure in order to recommend alternative forms which are presumed to be more effective in adapting to new conditions, and hence, enable the system to survive.[5]

Consultation can also be defined according to the needs of clients as a problem-finding process wherein a more knowledgeable professional gives information to a less knowledgeable professional in order to strengthen him in his designated role so that his work performance will be enhanced for the ultimate benefit of the clientele he services.[6] More broadly defined, the purpose of consultation is to introduce change in some facet of the consultee system. The actual consultation process is generally viewed as time limited, goal oriented and segment focused transaction. Viewing types of consultation on a continuum, Lippitt suggests the following model as multiple consulting approaches of the change agent (See Figure 2).[7]

Examination of the role of the consultant not only includes his purpose and the type of process used but also consideration of his point of entry into the system. Theoretically, the consultant should be brought into the system before a felt need becomes a crisis. This approach gives the consultant sufficient time to analyze the problem and recommend alternative solutions. Time is essential since the most difficult step in the consultative process is the first one,

Figure 2
MULTIPLE CONSULTING APPROACHES


Directive Consultation to Organization
Advocate
Persuades management to proper approach
Expert
Gives expert advice to management
Alternative Identifier
Provides alternative to management
Process Specialist
Assists in problem solving process
Reflector
Serves as catalytic agent for management in solving problems
Nondirective Consultation to Organization

defining the problem. Frequently, symptoms need to be analyzed before the problem ever becomes evident.

However, once the problem is identified, the consultant then enters the problem-solving process. According to Schein, this process can be thought of as consisting of two cycles, one of which involves primarily discussion and the other primarily action-taking. Elaborating upon a model developed by the late Richard Wallen, Schein describes the first cycle as consisting of:

1. Problem formulation
2. Generating proposals for solution
3. Forecasting the consequences of solutions proposed or testing solutions and evaluating them conceptually before taking any action.

The second cycle involves:

4. Action planning
5. Action steps
6. Evaluation of outcomes, often leading back into the first cycle of problem definition.[8]

Using this model it is evident that the major difficulty in the total cycle is making the transition from cycle one to cycle two if different parties are involved. Normally termination of the consultant's relationship with the consultee would be at the end of the first cycle. When the consultant has separated the symptoms from the problem and suggested alternatives for solving the problem, his role in the organizational change process is usually considered completed. However, planned change does not occur until phase two begins.

For some organizations the second cycle never begins because of the resistance to change. Thus the consultant, if he is to influence organizational renewal must also deal with the following issues before terminating his relationship with the consultee:

"1. The competitiveness manifested by management to demonstrate that they have been successful by rejecting suggestions.

2. The passivity of managers such that nothing can be accomplished without their collaboration.

3. The fear of management to expose the organizational functioning to the consultant.

4. The challenges posed by management in unanswerable questions which arise out of feelings of guilt for not being able to solve their own problems."[9]

The Process

In this particular case study, the consultants' entry into the system was at a time of crisis; at least that was the view held by the agency. The Division's regional directors had been operating a service delivery system for approximately one year with limited guidelines from top management. Employees involved in providing services to clients were not given clearly defined tasks thus role expectation was blurred. This became a very frustrating situation to both line staff and their supervisors, and it was understandable that regional administrators were asking for operating guidelines for their staff.

Top management's strategy to minimize the pressures from staff to initiate policy guidelines was a form of cooptation. The regional directors and their staff were invited to make suggestions as to how they would like to serve the clients in their geographic area. In addition they were invited to a workshop to discuss their views with the top management personnel and the consultants. While it was probably evident to the regional staff that control of policy formulation rested with top management, important issues were raised from the field. Due to the time pressures, this workshop was the primary source of data along with written statements from the regional directors for the consultants. The consultants were limited to the service delivery committee staff for any information concerning the agency's functioning.

When considering the consultation process with any organization, including the Division of Family Services, it must be kept in mind that planned change is developed simultaneously with the on-going functioning of the agency. In the Division of Family Services regional directors were already experimenting with new approaches to service delivery. This indicates that the environment does not stop impinging upon the organization; it continues to effect the functioning of the staff. This condition had to be accounted for during the consultation process if the final consultants' report was to have any bearing on the emerging service delivery system. Basically, the process used by the consultants in working with the agency followed these steps:

1. Agreeing on and understanding the goals of the organization,
2. Gathering information on the nature of the situation and available resources,
3. Diagnosing needs and setting planning goals,
4. Preparing a plan,
5. Getting the plan approved.[10]

In carrying out these steps the consultants, as seekers of information, had to learn who the key leaders were in the agency and what objectives and results they desired. As clarifiers of information they put a proper frame of reference around the ideas which became an integrated target with a proper sequence of events around a basic need. As reality testers of information they had to help the committee see that the plans were feasible, and as a communication link in the organization they had to be accessible to those who were working on the service delivery system, develop trust between themselves and the agency personnel, and level with people on plans and problems. This process was essential if the consultants were to initiate a change in the organizational structure, a change which was not a reaction to the situation but a planned change which would influence long range goals.

The Content

Undoubtedly there were as many agendas as there were groups working together to produce a final product. Using the Lippitt model, although the organization saw the consultants in the role of experts, the consultants also intended to function in the role of advocate. It was the intent of the consultants to advocate for continuing planned organizational renewal, particularly in the area of manpower utilization. Consequently, the content of the material the consultants prepared for the agency identified the importance of planning as well as some alternatives needed to solve an immediate problem.

Like many large organizations which interact with a multitude of subsystems in the environment, the Division of Family Services frequently sees planned change as futile. They view their plans as very difficult to implement because of the necessary approval of other systems. However, the consultants felt that the agency's senior staff should recognize the need to function in an environment where organizational renewal is essential if the agency is to survive. The Division of Family Services, like other large organizations, had to plan for its employees' career expectations and mobility as well as relate their career mobility to other systems in the environment if the agency was to continue to remain viable and move toward greater organizational maturity.

On the surface, it appears as if the content of the material the consultants provided was only a design which the agency could use to reassign employees to new jobs in a new service delivery system. However, the intent was to heighten the agency's awareness of how this particular planned approach to staffing an agency could also be used to solve many of the agency's other manpower problems. It could be used as: 1) a model on which to base a career mobility program; 2) a rationale for structuring in-service training programs; 3) guidelines for the establishment of employee performance standards; 4) providing the agency with a baseline for negotiating with educational institutions regarding preparation of their graduates; and 5) a mechanism for negotiating new personnel classifications and examinations with the State Division of Personnel, Department of Administration. (The consultants' report appears in the Appendix).

Impact

The most significant contribution the consultants made to the functioning of the Division of Family Services was to help top management plan for organizational renewal. In this particular case study it was evident that management committed itself to the concept of planning when it agreed with the consultants to change its plan of statewide implementation of service delivery system guidelines, which would have been premature to a pilot study in selected districts. The service plan will be implemented in several regions and will serve as an evaluation tool to test the effectiveness of the plan. Consequently, they are now involved in the second phase of the Schein model referring to action-taking and are therefore in a better position to guide the agency through the process of action planning and outcome evaluation.

Initially top management was reacting to pressure from the federal government with the resulting feeling of crisis. They had to develop and implement policies for the service delivery system immediately. However, as a result of seeking consultation, management began to realize the need for short-term and long-term planning to improve services to clients and to relieve employee anxieties which frequently resulted from changing role expectations. The agency managers have begun to recognize that role change is a complex process and must be implemented only after planning and evaluation of the change has taken place. This is evidenced by the fact that the program changes are being piloted before all staff are asked to assume new responsibilities in line with redefined agency goals.

The policies and procedures which were developed for staffing the service delivery system are not in the same form as the consultants' material. However, the consultants' report represents a long range goal and it is that goal which the Division has partially reflected in their plan for implementation of the service delivery system. The material they have developed for regional directors to use refers to the job functions of the staff and tasks they are expected to complete, although there is no mention of differential use of staff. The material on staffing does not represent a manual for implementation. It represents a policy statement as to the expectations the agency has for its line staff. The next step of translating the policy into practice will require further planning.

If the measurement of an effective consultation is whether it is able to affect the attitudes and increase the skills of program managers regarding manpower planning with concern for diagnostic process or achieving organizational change through assessing long-run effectiveness, then the consultants had a significant impact upon the Division of Family Services.[11]

NOTES

Federal Register, Vol. 34, No. 18, January 28, 1969 and Vol. 35, No. 330, 330, November 16, 1970.

[2] Daniel Katz and Robert Kahn, *The Social Psychology of Organization* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966), p. 27.

[3] Gordon L. Lippitt, *Organizational Renewal* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969), p. 46.

[4] *Ibid*, p. 26.

[5] Edgar Schein, *Process Consultation: Its Role in Organizational Development* (Menlo Park, California: Addison-Wesley, 1969).

[6] Lydia Rapoport, "Consultation", in *Encyclopedia of Social Work* (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1971).

[7] Lippitt, *Op. Cit.*, p. 279.

[8] Schein, *Op. Cit.*, p. 47.

[9] Chris Argyris, "Explorations in Consulting-Client Relationships," in Bennis, Benne, Chin, editors, *The Planning of Change* (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1965), pp. 434-457.

[10] Lippitt, *Op. Cit.*, p. 275.

[11] Schein, *Op. Cit.*, p. 125.

APPENDIX

Public welfare agencies have traditionally provided specified services to specified assistance groups linked specifically to the categorical assistance program. However, recently states have undergone complete separation of services from assistance payments and the concept of former, current, and potential clients has come into being. With the resulting system disorganization from this reorganization hardly resolved and the shadow of H.R. 1 on the horizon, the Florida Division of Family Services is moving into a much more comprehensive service delivery system which will make new demands on administrators, program planners, and workers alike.

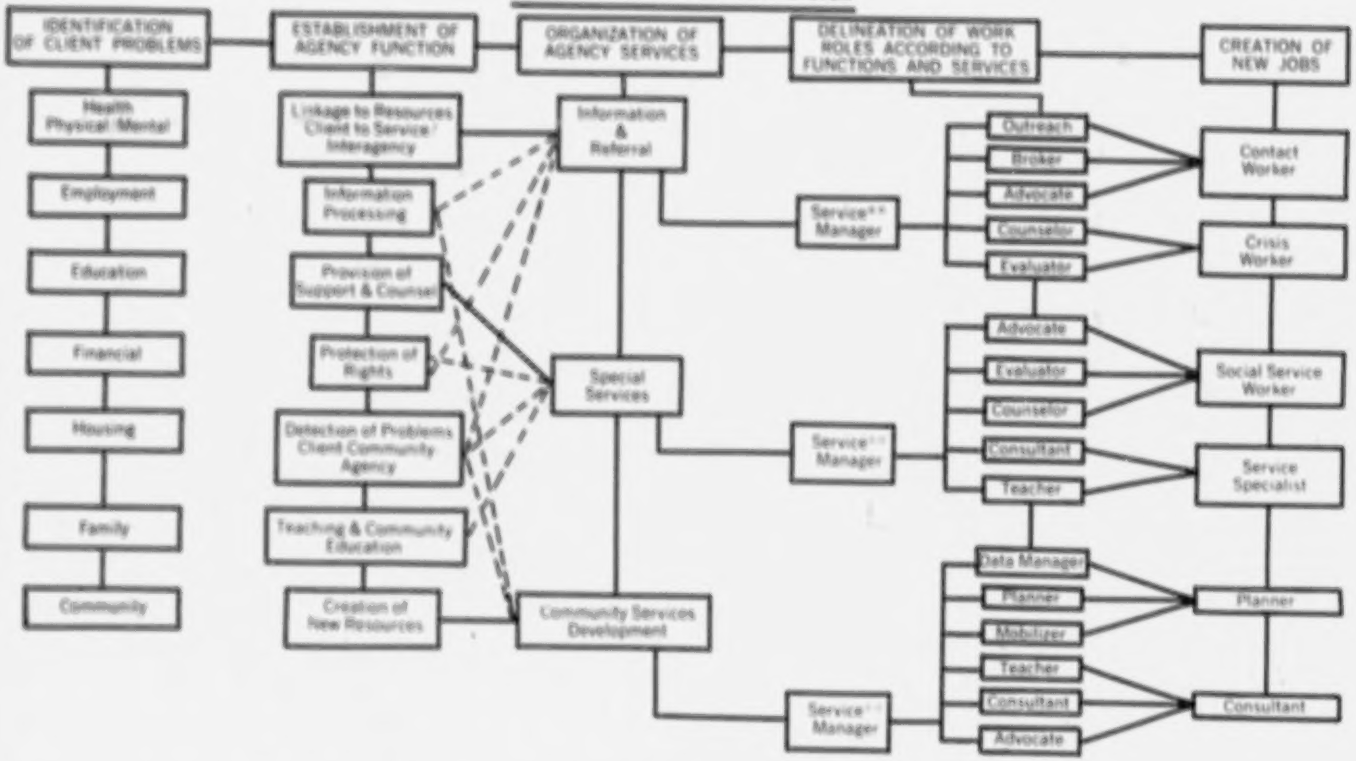
The new service delivery system comes at a time of turmoil within the agency, yet it holds the promise of moving the agency forward to a leadership position in the provision of a comprehensive range of services to a much broader clientele than ever before served by a single social welfare agency. It is important to note that the emphasis in the proposed service delivery system is not only on more services but on new services to new categories of recipients. It expands the purview of the agency from the individual client to the total community and its problems.

The public welfare worker of five years ago was trapped by large caseloads (usually mixed categories of assistance), eligibility determinations of complete periodic assistance reviews, and the increasing need for services that time and spirit would not allow. With the separation of services and payments a new breed of worker was born — the service worker. For a period of time following separation, workers, supervisors and administrators were thrown into a state of confusion as to just what this new kind of worker was supposed to do. Since neither supervisor expectations nor worker performance could be based on previously used standards (number of cases reviewed in the month, number of applications processed, etc.), the nature of work had to be reconceptualized for both worker and supervisor. This process has resulted in a critical reexamination of the functions of the agency.

The proposed service delivery system represents an attempt to translate an examination of client problems and resulting agency functions into a formalized mechanism for service provision. As the agency has begun to examine worker roles that are consonant with the defined functions of the agency, two broad categories of service workers have emerged — the generalist and the specialist.

There are several ways to distinguish between the generalist and the specialist. Two organizing themes that can be used to make this distinction are the nature of the worker activity and the nature of the client problem. The nature of worker activity refers to those things any given worker might do, i.e., screening requests for service, making referrals, etc. The nature of

Figure 1
STAFFING A SERVICE DELIVERY SYSTEM*


IDENTIFICATION OF CLIENT PROBLEMS
Health Physical/Mental
Employment
Education
Financial
Housing
Family
Community
ESTABLISHMENT OF AGENCY FUNCTION
Linkage to Resources Client to Service/ Interagency
Information Processing
Provision of Support & Counsel
Protection of Rights
Detection of Problems Client Community Agency
Teaching & Community Education
Creation of New Resources
ORGANIZATION OF AGENCY SERVICES
Information & Referral
Special Services
Community Services Development
DELINEATION OF WORK ROLES ACCORDING TO FUNCTIONS AND SERVICES
Service** Manager
Service** Manager
Service** Manager
Outreach
Broker
Advocate
Counselor
Evaluator
Advocate
Evaluator
Counselor
Consultant
Teacher
Data Manager
Planner
Mobilizer
Teacher
Consultant
Advocate
CREATION OF NEW JOBS
Contact Worker
Crisis Worker
Social Service Worker
Service Specialist
Planner
Consultant

*Designed from model suggested by Southern Regional Education Board (Teare and McPheeters, Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare).
**The function of Service Manager includes the roles of teacher, consultant and evaluator, as well as the roles to which it is linked.

the client problem refers to the variety of problems presented by a variety of clients to any given worker for resolution. (See Figure 1) Attention must be given to both in describing either the generalist or the specialist. In analyzing the three components of the proposed service delivery system — Information and Referral, Special Services, and Community Services Development — it appears that Information and Referral is structured for the generalist and that Special Services is structured for the specialist, while Community Services Development embraces both worker types.

The Generalist

The generalist is described as such because of the broad range of services he renders to various clients experiencing a diversity of problems. The generalist may be involved in both direct and indirect service activities. In services to individuals and families the generalist becomes the "key or primary worker."

In Information and Referral the generalist would engage in the following activities:

1) Identify persons, families, and organizations in the community experiencing problems and in need of service

2) Compile resource files for the range of problems presented to the agency

3) Receive, evaluate, and process all requests for service

4) Make referrals to resources outside the agency and monitor results

5) Make intra-agency referrals to Payments, Special Services, and Community Services Development

6) Compile data on service requests, referrals, and services rendered

7) Provide short-term counseling to individuals and families in need of emergency services

In Community Services Development the generalist would engage in the following activities:

1) Identify the range of resources in the community available to individuals, families, and organizations

2) Identify service gaps in the community

3) Assist organizations and agencies in obtaining resources for needed programs

4) Assist organizations and agencies in planning new service programs

Figure 2
ROLES AND JOBS

I. **Information and Referral**

A. Contact Worker
Outreach — **Broker*** — Advocate

B. Crisis Worker
Counselor — **Evaluator***

II. **Special Services**

A. Social Service Worker
Evaluator — **Counselor*** — Advocate

B. Service Specialist
Consultant — **Teacher***

III. **Community Services Development**

A. Planner
Data Manager — Planner — **Mobilizer***

B. Consultant
Teacher — **Consultant*** — Advocate

*Primary role

5) Assist organizations and agencies in implementing new service programs

The Specialist

The specialist is described as such because of the specific nature of services provided to a select clientele. Where, in a sense, the generalist is many things to many people, the specialist is identified as having a specifically defined service or set of services to render to only a few. As with the generalist, the specialist may be involved in both direct and indirect service activities.

As conceived in the proposed service delivery system the specialist will offer counseling, referral, evaluative and instructive or consultative services within the Special Services component that center around the following areas: 1) Protective Services; 2) Health Services; 3) Licensing; 4) Adoptions; 5) Foster Home Care; 6) Training and Employment; and 7) Circuit Court Services.

As conceived in the proposed service delivery system the specialist will offer instructive, consultative, and public information services within the Community Services Development component that center around the following areas: 1) Adult Opportunity; 2) Volunteers; 3) Day Care; 4) Education and Employment; 5) Youth Opportunity; 6) Health; and 7) Housing and Transportation.

In the proposed service delivery system the focus of worker activity is on the provision of generalized and specialized services. Since only one component of the service system is concerned with individual case management, the shift of focus in supervision is from supervising workers to supervising services. This represents a considerable expansion of the traditional concept of supervision. Operationally it means that the supervisor takes on more of a service management role and less of a counselor (to worker) role. In the proposed service delivery system the supervisor becomes an administrator, consultant, and teacher, while at the same time maintaining a working knowledge of all the worker roles necessary to the delivery of services in any given service component.

Roles and Jobs

Figure 2 represents the three components of the service delivery system, the worker jobs in each component (arbitrarily named), and the worker roles contained in each job. Some roles appear more than once where it was felt that the role was inherent in the given job. As an example, the worker role of "counselor" appears under Crisis Worker and Social Service Worker. As indicated by the asterisk it is the primary role of the Social Service Worker who carries an on-going service caseload. Counseling or casework is the focus of that job. The worker role of "counselor" is also a role played by the Crisis Worker but in a supportive or complementary sense to the primary focus of making a quick evaluation and disposition of a case. The same logic applies to duplications of roles in other job clusters.

Approaches to Staffing

In order to analyze and evaluate agency staffing patterns, it becomes necessary to use some standard or procedure. Differential manpower utilization has been defined as an "organization's allocation of its functions to the organization members who are considered most capable of fulfilling them efficiently."* What becomes crucial is how the organization determines its functions and what rationale is used for assigning them.

There are two basic approaches to staffing — the job factoring approach and the developmental approach. Job factoring is basically an industrial approach to deciding who does what by separating more complicated tasks from less complicated tasks. Sets of similar tasks are factored out of existing jobs and are used as a basis for creating other jobs. An example of this in a public welfare agency would be the extracting of clerical responsibilities (filling out, processing, and filing forms) from a regular service worker and making a job for an untrained incoming aide from the low income community. This approach to staffing is obviously simple and easily applied. Its shortcomings are many. It makes for a clear distinction between "professional" and "non-professional" staff. It creates *more jobs* in an agency rather than *new jobs* and consequently only spreads existing functions without expanding the range of services.

The developmental approach begins with an assessment of human (client) problems as opposed to existing job configurations. The assumption is that jobs in an agency must be extracted from agency functions which must be derived from an assessment of the range of service needs recognized by an agency. This approach is obviously more complex than the job factoring approach but its advantages are considerable. It does not assume that existing jobs are arranged in such a manner as to best meet client need, therefore, its application can reveal service gaps and inappropriate agency functions. In grouping work activity, the criteria emphasized are the range of problems to be met and the purpose of the activity instead of simply the job tasks. Application of this approach creates new jobs instead of more jobs, consequently the likelihood of providing more services to more people is increased. Emphasis

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*Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs, *Using Teams to Deliver Social Services* (Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, September, 1969).

is on job flexibility and mobility. Most importantly this approach recognizes the unique competencies and contributions that can be made by personnel at all levels.

Given this conceptual framework, the process involved in creating jobs for workers in a new service delivery system is illustrated in Figure 1.

Knowledge and Skill Components

As an agency moves into a reorganization of its service delivery system, it becomes crucial to delineate the knowledge and skill components of the jobs that are created in various parts of that system. In order to do that, attention must be given to the worker roles implied from an analysis of given system functions.

Worker roles must be examined relative to their purpose, the activities engaged in to accommodate that purpose, and the range of operation. When purpose, activities, and range of worker roles have been defined, knowledge and skill components can be developed. By a comparison of these components and purposes across roles, similarities can be seen (relative to objectives) that lend themselves to groupings for new jobs.

It is beneficial to the agency to translate functions into roles that can be grouped into jobs and to define the knowledge and skill components of these roles. Specifically this:

1. Provides a guide for administrators to systematically reassign workers to new jobs in a new service delivery system.
2. Provides workers with a guide to decide what they are most interested in and what they believe most qualified to do in a new service delivery system.
3. Provides staff development personnel with a rationale for structuring in-service training programs.
4. Provides the agency with guidelines for establishing performance standards that can be used to evaluate workers at *all* levels.
5. Provides the agency with a baseline for negotiations with educational institutions regarding the preparation of their graduates.
6. Provides the agency with a conceptual framework for reorganizing the personnel classification system.
7. Provides the agency with a mechanism to negotiate new qualifying examinations with personnel people.

The breakdown of service system components (developed from agency functions) into worker roles with knowledge and skill components and the grouping of these roles into jobs is shown in Figures 3 to 8.

Attitudinal Components

Positive attitudes reflecting the value base of the helping professions are as important as knowledge and skill to the successful performance of any worker in the human services. Attitudes, however, must be described more in terms of the absolute than in terms of the relative. It is difficult, if not meaningless, to discuss them in terms of roles or levels. Appropriate attitudes about oneself, the client, and the human condition in general are essential for every worker at every level. Therefore, one attitudinal component is basic to all jobs in a human service agency. The following attitudes should receive equal attention with knowledge and skill in the selection, training, evaluation, and promotion of all personnel:

1. Recognition and acceptance of human limitations,
2. Confidence in self,
3. Confidence in the potential of man to improve his environment,
4. Commitment to continuing self-development,
5. Respect for individual's person, privacy, decisions and opinions,
6. Sense of responsibility to facilitate solutions to contemporary problems and issues in appropriate ways,
7. Belief that obstacles to functioning can occur through inequitable laws, regulations, policies, opportunities and circumstances beyond the individual's control as through personal inadequacies,
8. Conviction of the importance of exercising personal responsibility and initiative for carrying out tasks — (dependable and reliable),
9. Conviction to maintain a continuing affirmative relationship to individuals and communities whenever and as long as needed, and
10. Belief that the improvement of the human condition through agency services is a right and not a privilege.

Explanation of Worker Role Descriptions

The knowledge and skill components of the major worker roles have been identified in Figures 9 to 18. The category of "Major Purpose" refers to the organizing theme of any given role — why that role exists. "Activities" refer to the basic process involved in what one does to perform any given role. "Range of Operation" refers to the continuum of activity for any given role. It reflects in part varying degrees of complexity and focus at any given point in time. It can be used as a guideline to decide what level worker does what, though a great deal of latitude should be apparent.

Figure 3

INFORMATION AND REFERRAL

The Contact Worker

Roles: Outreach, Broker, Advocate

Key Role: Broker

Primary Function: Get people to needed services

Examples of Work:

Level 1 — Make home visits to detect people with problems
— Make referrals to get client into service system
— Expedite services for clients by making appropriate connections
— Give information about available services
— Help clients to establish their right to service
— Follow-up on clients referred for service

Level 2 — Identify client groups experiencing similar problems
— Negotiate services for groups of clients
— Act as liaison between clients and agencies
— Assist client groups in organizing for receipt of specific services

Level 3 — Identify available resources in community
— Assist community organizations in identifying and managing problems
— Coordinate services between agencies
— Work to change policies and regulations inhibiting services

Level 4 — Identify program organization, coverage, and gaps in community
— Organize community groups to improve service delivery
— Act as inter-agency liaison
— Expedite changes in inequitable laws and policies

Figure 4

INFORMATION AND REFERRAL

The Crisis Worker

Roles: Counselor, Evaluator

Key Role: Evaluator

Primary Function: Intervene in emergency situations and assess service needs

Examples of Work:

Level 1 — Gather baseline data on individuals and families
— Assess presenting problems
— Provide support to clients seeking service
— Do simple coaching

Level 2 — Do emergency evaluations
— Assess priorities of need
— Determine services needed
— Provide short-term counseling

Level 3 — Do agency intake evaluations
— Develop short-term service plans
— Assess intra-agency service problems
— Provide crisis casework services

Level 4 — Do assessments on multi-problem families
— Do assessment of specialized problems
— Evaluate inter-agency service problems
— Do psycho-social diagnosis for planning extended service

Figure 5

SPECIAL SERVICES

The Social Service Worker

Roles: Evaluator, Counselor, Advocate

Key Role: Counselor

Primary Function: Provide extended support and care

Examples of Work:

Level 1 — Monitor progress of clients in service
- Provide information to other personnel in agency regarding impact of specific services
- Do simple counseling consonant with service plan
- Work with individual clients to assure receipt of needed services

Level 2 — Coordinate services for specific clients in context of service plan
- Evaluate impact of the range of cross-agency services
- Provide support to clients to help them make use of services
- Help expedite services for clients from specific agencies

Level 3 — Develop service plans on routine cases
- Evaluate impact of community dynamics of individual cases
- Provide extended casework services
- Work with community agencies to expedite client services

Level 4 — Do psycho-social diagnosis on multi-problem families
- Develop service plans on complex cases
- Provide intensive casework services on short-term basis
- Fight for the rights of clients with the entire network of service providers within the community

Figure 6

SPECIAL SERVICES

The Service Specialist

Roles: Consultant, Teacher

Key Role: Teacher

Primary Function: To improve the status of people through specialized services

Examples of Work:

Level 1 — Give instructions to clients on daily living skills
— Instruct clients on how to use agency services
— Work with other service personnel to help them understand specific problems of clients

Level 2 — Conduct training experiences for small client groups regarding specific skills
— Help other service personnel understand the implications of certain behavior patterns
— Teach other agency personnel about a specific specialized service

Level 3 — Assist in-service training personnel in conducting specialized training
— Prepare material for public information activities
— Work with agencies to give visibility to specific problem areas

Level 4 — Plan training experiences in specialized areas for agency personnel
— Advise other service personnel on treatment methods in specialized problem areas

Figure 7

COMMUNITY SERVICES DEVELOPMENT

The Planner

Roles: Data Manager, Planner, Mobilizer

Key Role: Mobilizer

Primary Function: Plan new service programs in a community

Examples of Work:

Level 1 — Conduct neighborhood surveys
— Observe needs of client groups
— Identify neighborhood resources
— Promote the development and utilization of neighborhood resources

Level 2 — Tabulate data from surveys
— Identify the range of needs in a given locale
— Identify gaps in resources in that locale
— Participate in organizing small neighborhood programs

Level 3 — Analyze survey data
— Gather, tabulate, analyze program data
— Organize community groups to facilitate planning
— Participate in the development of new service programs

Level 4 — Conduct program research
— Synthesize research findings into planning process
— Work the private sector to develop jobs and services
— Participate in community-wide planning efforts by serving on boards or developing planning committees
— Develop and write grant proposals

Figure 8

COMMUNITY SERVICES DEVELOPMENT

The Consultant

Roles: Teacher, Consultant, Advocate

Key Role: Consultant

Primary Function: Provide technical assistance to the entire community in the development of new resources

Examples of Work:

Level 1 — Give information to individuals in a community regarding available resources
— Provide planning personnel with information on the needs of specific locales and populations
— Work with neighborhood workers to make them aware of problems

Level 2 — Work with small groups in neighborhood to help them make better use of resources
— Work with program people to help them understand needs of specific neighborhoods
— Participate in organizing neighborhood groups to express their problems to the community

Level 3 — Provide service personnel with information on the availability of community resources
— Engage in publicizing community needs
— Work with community agencies to show their gaps in service

Level 4 — Conduct public information programs
— Act as resource person for planning bodies
— Provide technical assistance to community organizations and agencies developing new programs
— Publish research findings
— Work with legislative bodies to secure favorable or enabling legislation

"Levels" correspond roughly to the range of personnel employed by the agency. Given the present range of staff within DFS the range would be — indigenous worker, two year graduate, four year graduate, and M.S.W. For greater career opportunity and utilization, flexibility "levels" should refer to standards of performance with the built-in option of in-service development as well as competency through academic degree. Consequently the designations "S", "C" and "E" refer to the level of competency to be expected at each of the four levels with the competency provided either through academic experience or in-service training.

Every knowledge and skill element has been rated one of three ways: "Basic to Human Services," "Critical to Role," or "Desirable." "Basic to Human Services" refers to those items considered to be generic to every worker role. "Critical to Role" refers to those items considered to be crucial for successful role performance. Workers should have some degree of competency regarding those items. Generally, an item considered critical was given an "E" designation in at least two levels. "Desirable" refers to those items considered important but not crucial to successful role performance. Obviously knowledge and skill items are not all-inclusive and designations are somewhat arbitrary but they do serve as a baseline for describing role performance and delineating competencies.

Figure 9

THE WORKER ROLE OF OUTREACH

Major Purpose:
Detection of Problems

Activities:

1. Establish self in community
2. Identify problems of target population
3. Evaluate situation
4. Initiate action
5. Monitor or follow up

Range of Operation:

Identify individuals with problems —— Identify neighborhood groups with problems —— Identify community organizations with problems ——→ Identify agencies with problems

Knowledge Components:

S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1. Knowledge of self: strengths, limitations*	E	E	E	E
2. Knowledge of specific neighborhoods as geographic and social units**	E	E	C	S
3. Knowledge of community's social, economic, political structure**	C	C	E	E
4. Knowledge of the total range of community resources***	S	C	C	E
5. Knowledge of the concepts of role, class, culture***	S	S	C	E
6. Knowledge of human growth, development, behavior***	S	S	S	C
7. Knowledge of social welfare as a system: history, function, organization, accessibility***	—	S	C	E
8. Knowledge of various methods of intervention***	S	S	C	E
9. Knowledge of organizational behavior***	—	S	S	C
10. Knowledge of group dynamics***	S	C	C	C
11. Knowledge of the implications of disability: social, economic, physical***	S	C	C	E
12.				
13.				
14.				

Skill Components:

S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1. Skill in using self: developing style and strategic thinking*	C	C	C	E
2. Skill in talking to people comfortably, productively, and effectively*	E	E	E	E
3. Skill in establishing self in community**	E	E	E	E
4. Skill in listening and obtaining and giving information**	C	C	E	E
5. Skill in evaluating situations and assessing alternatives**	C	C	E	E
6. Skill in advising, counseling, consulting***	S	S	S	C
7. Skill in recording subjective and objective impressions of interviews or activities***	C	C	C	C
8. Skill in non-verbal communication***	C	C	C	C
9.				
10.				
12.				
13.				
14.				

*Basic to Human Services **Critical to Role ***Desirable

Figure 10

THE WORKER ROLE OF BROKER

Major Purpose:
Linkage of Need to Resource

Activities:
1. Assessment of Situation
2. Examination of Alternative Courses of Action
3. Interpretation of Information
4. Initiate Action
5. Monitor or Follow up

Range of Operation:

Bring individuals in contact with resources ←——— Expedite and coordinate services ——————— Be liaison between agencies ———→ Work with planners to match needs and resources

Knowledge Components:

S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1.	Knowledge of self: strengths, limitations*	E	E	E	E
2.	Knowledge of the total range of community resources**	C	C	E	E
3.	Knowledge of specific neighborhoods as geographic and social units**	E	E	C	S
4.	Knowledge of social welfare as a system: history, function, organization, accessibility**	—	S	C	E
5.	Knowledge of community's social, economic, and political structure***	C	C	C	E
6.	Knowledge of the concepts of role, class, and culture***	S	S	C	E
7.	Knowledge of various methods of intervention***	S	S	C	E
8.	Knowledge of organizational behavior***	—	S	C	E
9.	Knowledge of group dynamics***	S	C	C	C
10.	Knowledge of implications of disability: social, economic, physical***	S	C	C	E
11.	Knowledge of human growth, development, behavior***	S	S	S	C
12.	Knowledge of contemporary problems, events and issues relevant to Social Welfare Service***	—	S	C	E
13.					
14.					

Skill Components:

S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1.	Skill in establishing self in community**	E	E	E	E
2.	Skill in talking to people comfortably, productively, and effectively*	E	E	E	E
3.	Skill in non-verbal communication***	C	C	C	C
4.	Skill in listening and obtaining and giving information**	C	C	E	E
5.	Skill in recording subjective and objective impressions of interviews or activities***	C	C	C	C
6.	Skill in advising, counseling, consulting***	S	S	S	C
7.	Skill in using self: developing style and strategic thinking*	C	C	C	E
8.	Skill in evaluating situations, assessing alternatives and setting priorities**	C	C	C	E
9.	Skill in using baseline data***	S	S	C	E
10.	Skill in organizing groups as a process facilitator***	—	S	C	E
11.	Skill in making appropriate connections between problems and resources**	E	E	E	E
12.					
13.					
14.					

*Basic to Human Services **Critical to Role ***Desirable

Figure 11

THE WORKER ROLE OF ADVOCATE

Major Purpose:
To protect the rights of people

Activities:
1. Identify problems of target population
2. Assess alternatives
3. Set priorities
4. Develop a plan
5. Initiate action
6. Monitor or follow up

Range of Operation:

Fighting for individual rights ← Participation in neighborhood organizations —— Organizing groups to change rules, regulations, policies → Working to change laws, regulations, policies that are unjust to groups of society

Knowledge Components:
S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1.	Knowledge of self: strengths, limitations*	E	E	E	E
2.	Knowledge of neighborhood as a geographic and social unit**	E	E	C	S
3.	Knowledge of various methods of intervention**	S	C	E	E
4.	Knowledge of community's social, economic, and political structure**	S	C	E	E
5.	Knowledge of social welfare as a system: history, function, organization, accessibility**	S	C	E	E
6.	Knowledge of the total range of community resources**	S	C	E	E
7.	Knowledge of organizational behavior**	S	C	E	E
8.	Knowledge of the concepts of role, class, and culture***	S	S	C	E
9.	Knowledge of implications of disability: social, economic, physical***	S	C	C	E
10.	Knowledge of group dynamics***	—	S	C	E
11.	Knowledge of human growth, development, behavior***	S	S	S	C
12.	Knowledge of contemporary problems, events and issues relevant to Social Welfare Service***	—	S	C	E
13.	Knowledge of public information systems***	—	S	C	E
14.					

Skill Components:
S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1.	Skill in using self: developing style and strategic thinking*	C	E	E	E
2.	Skill in talking to people comfortably, productively, and effectively*	E	E	E	E
3.	Skill in activating community resources on behalf of persons or programs**	S	C	E	E
4.	Skill in listening, obtaining, and giving information**	S	C	E	E
5.	Skill in evaluating situations, assessing alternatives and setting priorities**	C	C	E	E
6.	Skill in organizing groups as a process facilitator**	C	C	E	E
7.	Skill in negotiating, mediating, and confronting**	C	C	E	E
8.	Skill in delivery of persuasive arguments**	C	E	E	E
9.	Skill in non verbal communication***	S	S	S	C
10.	Skill in public relations and use of media***	—	S	C	E
11.	Skill in preparing material for written and oral presentation***	—	S	C	E
12.					
13.					
14.					

*Basic to Human Services **Critical to Role ***Desirable

Figure 12
THE WORKER ROLE OF EVALUATOR

Major Purpose:
Gathering and assessing information
for service planning

Activities:
1. Compile information
2. Analyze situation
3. Develop plan
4. Implement plan
5. Monitor or follow up

Range of Operation:

Beginning assessment of individual problems ⟵ Assessment of individual and community problems for intake or referral ——— Psycho social/community diagnosis and service impact assessment ⟶ Assessment of agency program problems

Knowledge Components:
S = Some   C = Considerable   E = Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1	Knowledge of self: strengths, limitations*	E	E	E	E
2	Knowledge of human growth, development, behavior**	S	S	E	E
3	Knowledge of techniques of assessment of service impact and program analysis**	S	C	E	E
4	Knowledge of the interrelationship of social problems**	C	C	E	E
5	Knowledge of contemporary problems, events, and issues relevant to Social Welfare Service**	S	S	E	E
6	Knowledge of the concepts of role, class, and culture***	S	S	C	E
7	Knowledge of social welfare as a system: history, function, organization, accessibility***	—	S	C	E
8	Knowledge of community's social, economic, political structure***	S	C	C	E
9	Knowledge of various methods of intervention***	S	C	C	C
10	Knowledge of techniques of information dissemination***	S	S	C	E
11					
12					
13					
14					

Skill Components:
S = Some   C = Considerable   E = Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1	Skill in using self: developing style and strategic thinking*	S	C	C	C
2	Skill in talking to people comfortably, productively, and effectively*	E	E	E	E
3	Skill in evaluating situations, assessing alternatives, setting priorities**	S	C	E	E
4	Skill in gathering and utilizing data for planning**	S	C	E	E
5	Skill in monitoring and assessing service delivery**	S	C	E	E
6	Skill in recording subjective and objective impressions of activities or interviews**	S	S	E	E
7	Skill in non-verbal communication***	S	C	C	C
8	Skill in listening, obtaining and giving information***	C	C	C	C
9	Skill in advising, counseling***	S	S	C	E
10					
11					
12					
13					
14					

*Basic to Human Services   **Critical to Role   ***Desirable

Figure 13

THE WORKER ROLE OF COUNSELOR

Major Purpose:
To bring about positive changes in behavior

Activities:
1. Evaluate the situation
2. Develop plan
3. Involve client in plan
4. Implement plan
5. Evaluation and termination

Range of Operation:

Do simple coaching of individuals ← Do short term counseling with individuals and groups —— Do extended casework or group work → Do intensive psycho therapy or group therapy

Knowledge Components:
S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1	Knowledge of self: strengths, limitations*	E	E	E	E
2	Knowledge of human growth, development, behavior**	S	C	E	E
3	Knowledge of the implications of disability: social, economic, physical**	S	C	E	E
4	Knowledge of group dynamics**	S	C	E	E
5	Knowledge of various methods of intervention**	S	C	E	E
6	Knowledge of the behavioral implications of contemporary social problems***	S	S	C	E
7	Knowledge of the concepts of role, class, and culture***	S	S	S	C
8	Knowledge of contemporary problems, events, and issues relevant to Social Welfare Services***	S	C	C	C
9	Knowledge of new trends in service delivery — comprehensive centers, one stops***	—	S	C	E
10	Knowledge of new methods of treatment***	—	S	C	C
11					
12					
13					
14					

Skill Components:
S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1	Skill in using self: developing style and strategic thinking*	E	E	E	E
2	Skill in talking to people comfortably, productively, and effectively*	E	E	E	E
3	Skill in listening, obtaining and giving information**	S	C	E	E
4	Skill in developing service plans**	S	C	E	E
5	Skill in evaluating situations and assessing alternatives**	S	C	E	E
6	Skill in involving the client(s) in planning and services**	S	C	E	E
7	Skill in recording subjective and objective impressions of interviews or activities***	S	S	C	E
8	Skill in non-verbal communication***	S	C	C	E
9	Skill in exercising authority***	S	S	C	C
10	Skill in organizing information into reports for written and oral presentation***	—	S	C	C
11					
12					
13					
14					

*Basic to Human Services **Critical to Role ***Desirable

Figure 14

THE WORKER ROLE OF TEACHER

Major Purpose:
Provision of knowledge, skill, information

Activities:
1. Identification of educational gaps
2. Set educational objectives
3. Plan learning experience
4. Conduct learning program
5. Evaluate results

Range of Operation:

Give information and simple instructions to individuals ←—— Provide demonstrations for clients & small groups ———— Prepare teaching material & instruct clients & groups ——→ Teach training sessions

Knowledge Components:
S — Some C — Considerable E — Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1.	Knowledge of self: strengths, limitations*	E	E	E	E
2.	Knowledge of educational methods — teaching as a mode of intervention**	C	C	E	E
3.	Knowledge of learning theory and methods (especially for adults)**	S	C	E	E
4.	Knowledge of implications of disability: social, economic, physical**	E	E	E	E
5.	Knowledge of human growth, development, behavior**	S	C	E	E
6.	Knowledge of concepts of role, class and culture***	S	C	C	E
7.	Knowledge of interrelationships of social problems***	S	C	C	C
8.	Knowledge of public information and use of media***	—	S	C	E
9.	Knowledge of social welfare as a system: history, function, organization, accessibility***	—	S	C	C
10.	Knowledge of contemporary problems, events, and issues relevant to Social Welfare Service***	S	S	S	C
11.					
12.					
13.					
14.					

Skill Components:
S — Some C — Considerable E — Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1.	Skill in using self: developing style and strategic thinking*	C	C	E	E
2.	Skill in talking to people comfortably, productively, and effectively*	E	E	E	E
3.	Skill in listening, obtaining, and giving information**	S	C	E	E
4.	Skill in instructional methods**	S	C	E	E
5.	Skill in group teaching**	S	C	S	E
6.	Skill in preparing material for written and oral presentation**	—	S	E	E
7.	Skill in public speaking**	S	C	E	E
8.	Skill in evaluating learning experiences**	S	C	E	E
9.	Skill in non verbal communication***	S	S	S	C
10.	Skill in gathering and analyzing material for planning***	S	S	S	C
11.					
12.					
13.					
14.					

*Basic to Human Services **Critical to Role ***Desirable

Figure 15

THE WORKER ROLE OF CONSULTANT

Major Purpose:
To improve skills and services through advising individuals, groups, agencies

Activities:
1. Determine need
2. Establish self in process
3. Clarify problem
4. Assist consultee
5. Monitor or follow up

Range of Operation:

Give advice to client groups ← Work with agency field personnel on common problems —— Work with community organizations to help solve problems → Work with major agencies to help solve problems

Knowledge Components:
S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1	Knowledge of self: strengths, limitations*	E	E	E	E
2	Knowledge of contemporary problems, events, and issues relevant to Social Welfare Services**	S	C	E	E
3	Knowledge of the community's social, economic, political structure**	S	C	E	E
4	Knowledge of implications of disability: social, economic, physical**	S	C	E	E
5	Knowledge of various methods of intervention**	C	E	E	E
6	Knowledge of agencies' programs and services**	S	C	E	E
7	Knowledge of interrelationships of social problems**	S	C	E	E
8	Knowledge of concepts of role, class and culture***	S	C	C	E
9	Knowledge of social welfare as a system: history, function, organization, accessibility***	S	S	C	E
10	Knowledge of the neighborhood as a geographic and social unit***	E	C	C	S
11	Knowledge of human growth, development, behavior***	S	S	C	C
12	Knowledge of data gathering techniques and evaluation procedures in social welfare***	—	S	S	C
13	Knowledge of group dynamics***	—	S	C	C
14	Knowledge of organizational behavior***	—	S	C	E

Skill Components:
S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1	Skill in using self: developing style and strategic thinking*	C	C	E	E
2	Skill in talking to people comfortably, productively and effectively*	E	E	E	E
3	Skill in identifying service and program strengths, weaknesses, gaps**	C	E	E	E
4	Skill in listening, obtaining and giving information**	C	C	E	E
5	Skill in evaluating situations, assessing alternatives, setting priorities**	S	C	E	E
6	Skill in preparing material for written and oral presentation**	S	C	E	E
7	Skill in advising, counseling, consulting, teaching**	C	C	E	E
8	Skill in obtaining and interpreting data**	S	S	C	C
9	Skill in gathering and analyzing data for planning***	—	S	C	E
10	Skill in research methodology***	—	—	S	C
11	Skill in organizing groups as a process facilitator***	—	S	C	E
12					
13					
14					

*Basic to Human Services **Critical to Role ***Desirable

Major Purpose:
Gathering and utilizing data for
program planning

Figure 16
THE WORKER ROLE OF DATA MANAGER

Activities:
1. Identification of data needed
2. Gather data
3. Analyze data
4. Synthesize data
5. Monitor or follow up

Range of Operation:

Gather data on individuals ← Analyze case records for data —— Compile and analyze program statistics → Conduct program research

Knowledge Components:

S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1. Knowledge of self: strengths, limitations*	C	S	S	S
2. Knowledge of data gathering techniques and evaluation procedures in social welfare**	S	C	E	E
3. Knowledge of sources of information**	C	C	E	E
4. Knowledge of contemporary problems, events, and issues relevant to Social Welfare Services***	S	S	C	E
5. Knowledge of the concepts of role, class, and culture***	S	S	C	E
6. Knowledge of social welfare as a system: history, function, organization, accessibility***	S	S	C	E
7. Knowledge of community structure and resources***	S	C	C	E
8. Knowledge of human growth, development, behavior***	S	S	C	E
9.				
10.				
11.				
12.				
13.				
14.				

Skill Components:

S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1. Skill in using self: developing style and strategic thinking*	S	C	C	C
2. Skill in talking to people comfortably, productively, and effectively*	E	E	E	E
3. Skill in listening, obtaining, and giving information**	C	C	E	E
4. Skill in gathering and utilizing data for planning**	S	C	E	E
5. Skill in using research methodology**	S	C	E	E
6. Skill in recording subjective and objective impressions of activities or interviews***	S	S	C	C
7. Skill in evaluating situations, assessing alternatives, setting priorities***	S	S	C	E
8. Skill in writing reports***	S	S	C	E
9.				
10.				
11.				
12.				
13.				
14.				

*Basic to Human Services **Critical to Role ***Desirable

Figure 17

THE WORKER ROLE OF COMMUNITY PLANNER

Major Purpose:
Participate in the planning of neighborhood, community, and agency programs

Activities:
1 Establish self in community
2 Identify needs and problems
3 Assess alternatives and priorities
4 Organize a mechanism
5 Initiate programs
6 Monitor or follow up

Range of Operation:

Assist neighborhood groups in planning programs ← Participate in organizing small community based programs —— Assist groups in organizing to develop programs → Participate in planning major programs

Knowledge Components:
S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1	Knowledge of self: strengths, limitations*	E	E	E	E
2	Knowledge of community's social, economic, political structure**	C	E	E	C
3	Knowledge of social welfare as a system: function, organization, accessibility**	S	C	E	E
4	Knowledge of group dynamics**	S	C	E	E
5	Knowledge of organizational behavior**	S	C	E	E
6	Knowledge of specific neighborhood as a geographic and social unit**	E	E	C	S
7	Knowledge of agencies' programs and services**	C	E	E	E
8	Knowledge of implications of disability: social, economic, physical**	S	C	E	E
9	Knowledge of the concepts of role, class and culture***	S	C	C	C
10	Knowledge of methods of intervention***	S	C	C	E
11	Knowledge of contemporary problems, events and issues relevant to Social Welfare Service***	—	S	C	E
12	Knowledge of human growth, development, behavior***	S	S	C	C
13	Knowledge of public information systems***	—	—	S	C
14	Knowledge of data gathering techniques and evaluation procedures in social welfare***	—	S	C	E

Skill Components:
S = Some C = Considerable E = Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1	Skill in using self: developing style and strategic thinking*	C	C	E	E
2	Skill in talking to people comfortably, productively and effectively*	C	E	E	E
3	Skill in identifying service and program strengths, weaknesses, gaps**	C	C	E	E
4	Skill in listening, obtaining and giving information**	C	E	E	E
5	Skill in organizing groups as a process facilitator**	S	C	E	E
6	Skill in gathering and utilizing data for planning**	S	C	E	E
7	Skill in developing a planning methodology — setting objectives, etc.**	S	C	E	E
8	Skill in establishing self in community**	E	E	E	E
9	Skill in advising, counseling, consulting, teaching***	S	C	C	E
10	Skill in evaluating situations, assessing alternatives, setting priorities***	S	C	C	E
11	Skill in public relations and use of media***	—	S	C	C
12	Skill in drafting reports for written and oral presentation***	—	S	C	C
13					
14					

*Basic to Human Services **Critical to Role ***Desirable

Figure 18

THE WORKER ROLE OF MOBILIZER

Major Purpose:
Development of new resources and programs

Activities:
1. Identify need for new resources
2. Evaluate the situation
3. Initiate action
4. Monitor or follow up

Range of Operation:

Promote neighborhood resources for individuals ←—— Assist in development of new community programs —— Organize community for development of new programs ——→ Develop major programs

Knowledge Components:
S — Some C — Considerable E — Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1.	Knowledge of self: strengths, limitations*	E	E	E	E
2.	Knowledge of the total range of community resources**	C	C	E	E
3.	Knowledge of community's social, economic, political structure**	C	C	E	E
4.	Knowledge of neighborhood as a geographic and social unit**	E	E	C	S
5.	Knowledge of social welfare as a system: history, function, organization, accessibility**	—	C	E	E
6.	Knowledge of the concepts of role, class, and culture***	S	S	C	E
7.	Knowledge of group dynamics***	S	C	C	C
8.	Knowledge of organizational behavior***	—	S	C	E
9.	Knowledge of methods of intervention***	S	S	C	E
10.	Knowledge of contemporary problems, events, and issues relevant to Social Welfare Service***	S	C	C	E
11.	Knowledge of human growth, development, behavior***	S	S	S	C
12.	Knowledge of public information***	S	S	C	E
13.	Knowledge of data gathering techniques and evaluation procedures in social welfare***	—	S	C	E
14.					

Skill Components:
S — Some C — Considerable E — Extensive

		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
1.	Skill in using self: developing style and strategic thinking*	C	C	C	E
2.	Skill in talking to people comfortably, productively, and effectively*	E	E	E	E
3.	Skill in identifying service and program strengths, weaknesses, gaps**	E	E	E	E
4.	Skill in listening, obtaining, and giving information**	C	C	E	E
5.	Skill in evaluating situations, assessing alternatives, setting priorities**	C	C	E	E
6.	Skill in drafting reports, proposals, grants**	S	C	E	E
7.	Skill in public relations and use of media***	—	—	S	E
8.	Skill in gathering and utilizing data for planning***	—	—	S	E
9.	Skill in advising, counseling, consulting, teaching***	S	S	C	E
10.	Skill in organizing groups as process facilitator***	—	S	C	E
11.	Skill in recording subjective and objective impressions***	S	S	C	C
12.	Skill in non verbal communication***	S	S	C	E
13.					
14.					

*Basic to Human Services **Critical to Role ***Desirable

Human Service Teams: Past, Present, And Future

Thomas L. Briggs

A discernable trend developing in the human services during the past ten years is the reorganization of service delivery systems within agencies from a "case approach" to some form of team operations. Included in this change has been the introduction of new categories of human service personnel including "new careerists" (nonprofessional neighborhood workers) and associate degree technicians, to work together in teams with the more traditional staff members (i.e., undergraduate and graduate trained workers in the human services).

It is important to document how the human service team has recently emerged, to describe the typical team and the various positions which appear universal on all teams, to briefly describe how it operates, and its potential advantages over the traditional case approach. Finally, the professional obstacles to the implementation of the team approach once it has been adopted in an organization will be described.

Emergence of the Human Service Team Concept

The notion of meeting the needs of clients in human service agencies through

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some form of team effort appears to be a new development in the field; yet, on examination, some of the writings of Mary Richmond during the early part of the century indicate that she used teams in her work. Richmond's teams were composed of a paid social worker and volunteers. Clients who came to her agency were examined in terms of their needs and assignments were made to the team member most qualified to help. The casework model came along later with the further professionalization of social work and the increasing reliance on psychoanalysis as a foundation theory for practice.[1]

Social work practice during the period 192O-197O adopted the casework, one-to-one, worker-client model of service delivery and it has remained the predominant modality of the present time. In the casework model, a caseload is assigned to a single worker who then meets or attempts to meet *all* the social service needs of the entire clientele of that caseload if the goals of service are compatible with the goals of the employing agency. In this model the only other person in the agency who is regularly involved in the case is the supervisor who consults from a distance and rarely, if ever, sees or renders service directly to the client.

The practicality and effectiveness of the "all purpose" social caseworker, capable of meeting "all" the needs of clients has during the past decade, been called into serious question by social work theoreticians and administrators. Added to this questioning was the manpower picture in the human services especially during the 196O's when supply and demand reached critical proportions and serious attempts were made to deal with the acute shortage of professionally qualified personnel through the development of conceptual approaches to the utilization and deployment of persons without professional education in human service programs.[2] The human service team emerged as a viable means of incorporating various levels of staff in a service delivery system capable of meeting the needs of clients more comprehensively while maintaining high standards of service.

The first systematic, highly research-oriented experiment on the use of teams was conducted in the public welfare field by the University of Chicago School of Social Service Administration under the direction of Dr. Edward Schwartz from February 1963 to March 1965.[3] The project was designed to compare the operations of welfare workers organized experimentally on a team basis with those workers organized on the standard, conventional basis. Specialization on the part of team members was encouraged and a major change was the restructuring of the role of the supervisor (now called team leader) to enhance his contribution and to utilize his skills and knowledge at their highest level. Teams of five workers, a team leader and a secretary, were organized in the experimental design and the team served an entire caseload. Briefly stated, the conclusion reached was that efficiency and effectiveness in services to clients increased in the team approach as compared with the conventional case method of service.[4]

Another benchmark in the development of the human service team was the Illinois Beach Conference on "Differential Use of Manpower" held in June 1966 under the sponsorship of the Chicago Child Care Society, which brought together a group of experienced social work practitioners primarily from the Chicago area to develop a team model for foster family care. Eight participating agencies nominated either their director of casework or a senior supervisor to attend. This conference directly or indirectly led several agencies to implement the team idea, including the Chicago Child Care Society, the Illinois Department of Children and Family Services and the Monroe County (Rochester, New York) Department of Social Services. It was also instrumental in the development of another major manpower research effort at the Detroit Catholic Charities entitled "Study of Staff Utilization in the Foster Family Care Division" under the direction of Dr. Thomas Melican. Major among the Detroit findings was that staff organized on the team basis were more "goal-oriented" in their work and thus achieved greater payoffs for their clients in such concrete events as adoptions, removal of children from institutions and return to own families, and so on.[5]

There followed in rapid succession during the late 196O's a number of other manpower research demonstrations including the Family Service Association of America's "Study on Social Work Teams with Aging Family Service Clients" directed by Lenore Rivesman; the U.S. Veterans Administration's "Study on the Use of Social Work Associates" led by Virginia Karl; and the National Association of Social Workers' "Study on Utilization of Personnel in Mental Hospitals" directed by this author.[6] They took place at approximately the same time (1965-197O), independently of one another and in a variety of different settings. All were conceived and implemented at a time when there was great concern about the growing needs for social services and the realization that there would not be the necessary Master's level manpower to meet those needs. The studies were, in part, born out of the need to find ways of fulfilling social service needs through personnel and organizational changes. They all made attempts to study how best to utilize human service personnel who did not have Master's degrees. The goal was to assign to Baccalaureate workers responsibilities which were more of a professional nature and determine what they could and could not do. In other words, all the studies attempted to shed light on the kinds of activities that the non-Masters human service workers performed under the right conditions and they attempted to depict what those conditions would be.

Several findings which emerged from each of these research projects seem to have particular reference to the topic under discussion:

1. *All projects made extensive use of the human service team and expressed notions that it was highly useful.*

In all the studies the approach of using different kinds of human service personnel with a variety of levels of training in teams emerged independently. It appeared that when an agency attempted to introduce staff members without professional education into a service delivery system, utilizing their competence to the fullest while at the same time maintaining professional standards, that teams were the inevitable result.

2. *All the projects attempted to avoid case assignments and attempted better alternatives.*

As an adjunct to the team approach, it also emerged in the studies that attempts were made to assign work to the worker on a basis other than the traditional one of giving an entire case to the individual. Instead of one person being responsible for all aspects of one client's helping process, the needs of the client were "divided up", each of which was assigned to the most qualified worker. The task assignment or episode of service formulation was the designation given to this mode.

3. *Baccalaureate level workers seemed more limited in the work they did by the limits that were imposed upon them than because of their own inhibitions or felt inadequacies.*

Generally the uses to which the Baccalaureate workers were put in the beginning of the projects were very limited, and those who assigned them were very cautious in giving them more than rather minimal responsibilities. However, as they were used more extensively in teams, they continued to prove themselves. The implication here is that planners can be more ambitious in what they expect of the non-Master's worker given the proper structure and professional controls.

4. *Baccalaureate workers acquired areas of unique expertise on their own and thus added to the total service delivery system.*

In the studies concerned, Baccalaureate workers found jobs for themselves which proved to be very important in fulfilling agency goals. These jobs were not built into job descriptions or even anticipated by the administrators or researchers. The Baccalaureates, through taking on these additional responsibilities acquired through their own trial and error approaches, added to the range and quality of services offered by the human service agency. The implication for administrators is that there should be built into the team system an approach that supports workers seeking new ways of providing services, and there should be rewards in the organization for this initiative.[7]

Movement to inaugurate human service teams in social agencies continues throughout the country. Examples are, Family Service Center of Houston and Harris County, Texas, and the Diocese of Brooklyn Catholic Charities, Brooklyn, New York, which established team approaches based on the conceptual model developed by this author and Dr. Robert L. Barker as a part of the NASW study.[8]

Two statewide agencies are in the process of converting to team approaches in all of their local departments: they are the New York State Department of Social Services and the Illinois Department of Children and Family Services. Other agencies in this country are contemplating a similar move. In Canada many public agencies have already made the change. Finally, two publications on teamwork have sold in the thousands indicating widespread interest in experimenting with this approach.[9]

The Human Service Team Defined

While we have been discussing teams and team approaches to service delivery, perhaps a definition is in order to explicate more clearly what is meant by the concept. The human service team is defined as *any grouping of human service personnel which has mutual responsibility for providing appropriate services to a common clientele*. As currently conceived, its members have various kinds and levels of training in the human services at the graduate and undergraduate levels and sometimes in other occupations and professions or as nonprofessional workers. Each team member, whatever his background, brings a specific expertise and competence to bear in the need provision activity and he is regarded as being the single most capable and qualified person on the team within that particular sphere of his expertise. The team is most often led by a Master's level worker who must assume ultimate responsibility for the professional treatment of and service to the client. It is the leader's primary responsibility to make assignments of activities to the team members. These assignments are based on the leader's awareness of the client needs and of the capacities of the various team members to fulfill those needs as well as his knowledge of the nature of the service required.[10]

The number of people who make up the human service team varies according to the requirements and goals of the organization in whose auspices the helping activity is conducted, but it may be a partnership of two or may be as large as ten members. Thus far, in most settings where the team has been used, between four and eight members have made up the membership. In the team approach, the recipient of the services may be served by more than one team member. The team does not assign caseloads to its members so that a worker has complete responsibility for assisting a given client. Instead, every client's social service *needs* are divided up in such a way that each team member works at meeting only one or a few of them. Thus, a single client often does not relate exclusively to one worker, but to several. He may, however, experience face-to-face contact with *only one member* of the team, while the other members are engaged in serving him behind the scenes.

As noted previously the number and kinds of positions one has on a particular team is an idiosyncratic matter related to a number of variables including type and range of client problems being dealt with, the various client groups being served, etc. There appear to be four kinds of positions that are universally found on most teams in the human services. They are the team leader, the team secretary, the generalist, and the specialist. Each will be briefly discussed.

The Team Leader

The position of team leader is perhaps the most influential and certainly the most challenging on the team. The team leader's special contribution is generally not that of a "doer" but of an organizer, coordinator, motivator and facilitator. He is the *manager* of the service delivery system and sits in an interface position between the agency and its goals and mandates, and the team and the clients they wish to serve. He is the final arbitrator on agency and professional matters and assumes ultimate responsibility for the quality and kind of service which his team provides. The requirements for occupying the position of leader are the most rigorous of any on the team in terms of the training and breadth of experience required. His "clients" are primarily the staff group, the service community, the vulnerable community and the community at large. He carries out his position by performing such roles as administrator (people manager), data manager, evaluator, mobilizer, teacher, consultant, community planner, broker, and advocate.[11]

One of his major functions is that of "system maintenance" to see that the team operates effectively and that the "work" of the agency gets done. Another major function that tends to differentiate the new concept of team leader from the traditional line supervisor is his work in and with the community. Team leaders quickly learn that there is a community organization job in every team caseload and since teams are often assigned "catchment areas," the responsibility of working with the service community is of critical importance.

Team Secretary

In an age in which there is an ever increasing volume of forms, records and other paper work for every service that is provided, the secretary is indispensable to the human service team. Not having at least one person who occupies this position on the team inevitably means that much inappropriate but necessary work must be accomplished by other team members who possess rather extensive training in other than clerical spheres. The typical team secretary carries out all the traditional functions of secretarial personnel, but on the team is used in additional ways as well. Besides making appointments, completing forms and typing written data the secretary may act somewhat as the human service specialist. Where possible, she could provide information to the clients about appropriate procedures, channel potential clientele to the most appropriate team member, and work directly with clients in such procedures as helping them with filling out forms and the like. The team secretary is also used as an information-gathering person, contacting clients by telephone and obtaining needed factual data which is asked for by other team members. Because of her intimate role on the team, the secretary is made an integral part of its various training and staffing meetings so that she too can acquire knowledge about human service values and methods. Her presence at such gatherings can be easily justified by allowing her to record the staff presentations and summarize them for the records. Participation in the training programs would make it possible for the secretary to work with greater independence and enable the team to place greater reliance on her than would otherwise be possible.

The "clients" of the secretary are the staff group, individuals and family clients. She meets their needs typically through the roles of data manager, evaluator, consultant, broker, and teacher.

Team Generalist

The third position on the human service team is the "generalist". He is the person assigned responsibility to provide a continuity of service to a portion of the team caseload. He is usually the person who develops the closest relationship with most of the clientele and serves as the major link between the agency and its "customers". It is he whom the client can contact as new needs emerge requiring team services and can either meet these needs himself or see to it that the services are provided by another team member who may be more "expert" in the domain of living where the problem is manifesting itself. In addition, he assumes a preventive function and through regularly scheduled contacts with clients can deal with problems in their early stages before crises or chronicity occurs. It is his responsibility also to see that clients "do not get lost" in the bureaucratic maze, to personalize an often impersonal organization and its culture, and to help clients "negotiate the system."

Among the activities that the generalist may engage in are: obtaining information about the client's problems and reporting it to the team for evaluation, preparation of social histories and other documents useful in team service, interviewing collaterals and gathering significant data about clients, providing continuity of relationship, offering support, providing an opportunity for ventilation, providing tangible advice, linking persons in need with service deliverers, etc. The position obviously requires its occupant to be intelligent, articulate, able to put into practice the knowledge about helping persons which he has gained through academic and in-service training and life experiences. In most teams, "generalists" will also be "specialists" in some area of client need and may function in both capacities as they attend to the specific requirements of some clients.

What should be avoided, however, in developing the generalist position is to model this after the "all-purpose caseworker" who supposedly can meet *all* the needs of *all* the clients he is serving. No one person can be expert in all domains of living and to attempt to function thusly can only mean mediocre or incompetent service for some clients.

Since many public agencies are moving to the concept of "service on demand" the role of the generalist will require some modification of that suggested above. It is conceivable that some clients will not be assigned to a single worker but to the team in an abstract sense. He and his needs may not be visible unless and until he requests assistance. Perhaps even in this system someone should carry the case for the team and the client should have a name he can call when and if he needs to.

In conclusion, the generalist primarily serves individual and family clients but may also assist other client groups. He performs his functions by assuming the roles of outreach worker, broker, advocate, evaluator, teacher, mobilizer, consultant and occasionally behavior changer and care giver.

The Specialist

The team specialist is the fourth position on the human service team, and may represent the major departure from the traditional mode of social work assistance. The occupant of the position need not always have an academic degree but he is always in possession of a specialized kind of knowledge and skill which equips him to perform very unique services on the team. The special knowledge may come from in-service training, previous vocational experience, formal training, or from being a member of the client group which the team is to serve. Usually the services rendered by the specialist are those generally known in social work as the "concrete social services". Typical activities of this type are, for example, helping an individual obtain a job, providing the client with information that would assist in his problem-solving, providing homemaking service, providing needed funds or equipment, or training the client in a needed social skill. Because the specialist position presumes that the occupant has a skill which is unique, he is not directly supervised by the team leader or other team members insofar as the method of doing his job. The leader decides, with the team generalist, *whether* the unique services of the specialist will be required. When the decision to use the specialist is made he assumes the primary responsibility for how he carries out his role. This is obviously because no one else on the team knows more about how the job is to be done than does the specialist. He is autonomous as to the means, but is dependent on the team for professional validation of his goals. In larger organizations, however, the specialist may be supervised by more experienced specialists in the same field, but who are not themselves a part of the team. This provides an opportunity for advancement by the specialists that they would not otherwise have.

Despite the fact that initially some team members may function only as specialists "there is something inherently generic about the skills needed in the human service field which suggests that no matter how well tasks are defined, there will always be something similar and transferable in the appropriate skills and knowledge . . . on different levels. Increasingly the best (specialists) may become the best lower level generalists."[9]

The specialist acts out his position by primarily utilizing the roles of evaluator, mobilizer, consultant, teacher, data manager, and broker. Occasionally, he may also be a behavior changer, outreach worker, community planner, care giver or advocate. Client groups served are individuals and families, staff groups (as consultant and teacher) and the service community.

Occasionally, the team's customers may require expert service that no team member possesses. In this instance, a specialist can be recruited from outside the team to serve as an ad hoc member during this particular episode of service. This temporary team member, like other specialists, is held accountable to team goals but is regarded as the best informed person as to the "means".

The Advantages of the Team Approach

The advantages of the human service team approach are many as documented by the formal manpower research demonstrations of the past ten years and other less formal efforts of agencies to introduce this model of service delivery.

The following are posited as the major benefits:

1. The establishment of teams appears to be the most prudent way of introducing nonprofessionals into an agency because the professional knowledge, values, and know-how are built into the service delivery system, and standards of service can be maintained while utilizing those who have not been entirely socialized into the human service culture. Structure and professional controls, therefore, can be utilized to make up for potential or actual individual deficits.

2. This approach tends to reduce overlapping of functions among various

categories of staff, while at the same time allows for the development of specialization (not tied in with credentials) which can maximize the contribution and job satisfaction of all staff personnel.

3. The use of teams enhances the role of Masters level staff who, in the position of team leader, are called upon for critical judgments and decisions, a professional activity of the highest order. It also allows them to be involved in complex cases as direct service practitioners on a systematic or occasional basis where their "particular" skills are needed to render the goal of service, and avoid activities that underutilize their competence.

4. An additional advantage to the use of the human service team is that it improves the level of professionalism. If the majority of human service personnel do not have professional training, and if these same individuals have total responsibility for providing for the human service needs of the clients assigned to them, then the clients are not afforded professional intervention at any level. In the team approach, there would be at least one professional human service worker involved, even if from a distance, with every case assigned to the *team*. Only in the traditional model, where nonprofessionals are employed, is there the kind of autonomy that can lead to serious limitations in professional involvement.

5. Another advantage of the use of the human service team is that it readily suggests an orientation to the *goals* of the organization and the goals of service rather than an orientation to the *means* of service provision. Many approaches in finding better use of personnel incorrectly attempt to find ways of carving up job responsibilities and give too little regard to the ultimate job that is to be done. The team inherently requires a focus on the goals of client service rather than on process, and this is essential if a profession is to remain viable and effective. The worker-client model has traditionally been slanted to the process orientation in such a way that the worker is often supervised as to how well he administers the techniques at his disposal, and relatively little attention is given by the worker or the supervisor to the appropriate *goals*. In the team approach, the goal orientation is mandatory. When people with different levels of training, standards, and original value orientations are working toward a common objective, this objective must be made very clear. Concern about techniques must take a secondary place in the scale of importance. Another reason for this is that through specialization, the techniques used by the particular worker are known better by him than by anyone else on the team.

6. Finally, and perhaps most important, the human service team has the advantage of increasing the range and quality of service offered to clients of an agency. This conclusion has been demonstrated over and over in the various research projects. If for no other reason, the team approach should

be explored by all responsible human service administrators and others in professional leadership positions.

Obstacles to the Establishment of Teams

From all available evidence the team approach to service delivery seems to be superior to the traditional one-to-one, worker-client model. Despite the fact that conceptual material on teams is available to the field and has been empirically tested, there still appears to be reluctance on the part of many to consider it as a viable alternative to the current way of doing business. In instances when administrators have reorganized agencies along team lines they have often discovered considerable anxiety, resistance, and even open hostility on the part of a staff to the change, and in a few instances have eventually abandoned the effort. The conclusion to be drawn from the events just described is that it is *not* the lack of adequately tested theoretical concepts that has retarded the implementation of team approaches — rather it is the "attitudes" of human service workers that constitute the major hurdle to needed changes. Granted, team work necessitates staff to assume new roles and also in some ways requires "a whole new way of practice." A "different way of thinking" and a "different way of doing" are not easy things to accomplish for any occupational group; but, given some of the current challenges to our profession, do we have any alternative?

NOTES

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[4] Claire M. Anderson and Thomas Carlsen, "The Midway Project on Organization and Use of Public Assistance Personnel" in Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs, (eds.), *Manpower Research on The Utilization of Baccalaureate Social Workers: Implications for Education* (Syracuse, New York and Washington, D.C.: Syracuse University School of Social Work and the U.S. Veterans Administration, 1971).

[5] Thomas P. Melican, "The Catholic Social Services of Wayne County Study of Staff Utilization in the Foster Family Care Division", in Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs, (eds.), *Manpower Research on the Utilization of Baccalaureate Social Workers: Implications for Education*, Op. Cit.

[6] Reports on all these studies can be found in Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs, (eds.), *Manpower Research . . . Implications for Education*, Op. Cit.

[7] This material has been excerpted from Robert L. Barker, "What Research Suggests and Does Not Suggest About the Education of Baccalaureate Social Workers," *Manpower Research . . . Implications for Education*, Op. Cit.

[8] A description of the Houston experiment can be found in *Delivery of Social Services by the Social Work Team: A New Concept of Utilization* (Austin: Texas Department of Public Welfare, 1970). For the Brooklyn experience see "The Team Approach in a Family Service Agency" *Catholic Charities Review* (October, 1970), pp. 4-11.

[9] Donald Brieland, et al., *Differential Use of Manpower: A Team Model for Foster Care* (New York: Child Welfare League of America, Inc., 1968). Also, Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs, *Using Teams to Deliver Social Services* (Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1969).

[10] Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs, *Differential Use of Social Work Manpower* (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1968).

[11] These roles are a part of a manpower conceptualization that appears in Robert J. Teare and Harold L. McPheeters, *Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare* (Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board, 1970).

[12] Donald Feldstein, "The Associate Degree in the Social Services," in Lester Glick (ed.), *Undergraduate Social Work Education for Practice: A Report on Curriculum Content and Issues* (Syracuse, New York and Washington, D.C.: Syracuse University School of Social Work and the U.S. Veterans Administration, 1972).

PART III

PERSONNEL PLANNING

Public Personnel Administration: Past Accomplishments And Future Directions For The Human Services

Roy E. Stockstill and Joe M. Turner

High rates of unemployment, low productivity, shortages of trained, qualified personnel in critical areas, increasing costs, the disadvantaged hard core unemployables — everywhere one turns, these phrases appear with increasing regularity. Why? Because the nation as a whole is facing a monumental personnel problem.

Since these problems are all people oriented, it is understandable why the human service industry is a prime area for concern. The need for its service is growing but the availability of manpower qualified to provide these services does not come close to satisfying this need. All areas of management must review their operations in the search for answers to the problems, for they are all necessary to support a viable program; but in the human service industry the problem of manpower seems most acute. It is for this reason that many organizations, large and small, private and public, dealing in

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human services are critically reviewing their personnel management functions.

Why is personnel management so important? What are its functions? A good comprehensive definition is advanced by E. B. Flippo who states:

> "Personnel management comprises those processes of management related to planning, organizing, directing and controlling of procurement, development, compensation, integration and maintenance of people to the end that organizational objectives are effectively accomplished."[1]

From this definition it is apparent that personnel management and the administration of its functions are the vital factors in the success of *any* industry.

Quality personnel administration constitutes a cornerstone of effective service management by blending the needs and skills of workers with the organization and its clientele. Public personnel administration, as many occupations and professions in the human services, has no unique body of theory but draws on a variety of disciplines. Personnel administrators draw their knowledge and skills from political science with emphasis on public administration, from sociology with reference to occupations, organizations and institutions, and from industrial psychology with concepts of job satisfaction, motivation and behavior. These and other disciplines have influenced personnel administration as a whole. Public personnel administration also operates within a political structure which in turn must come to grips with social mores reflecting the values and concerns of the organization and its larger community.

It has long been the contention of personnel administrators that a career orientation is a desirable trait in employees and in turn those who aspire to move "up the organization" are preferable to less concerned personnel. The extent to which career mobility may be utilized in developing these aspirations within personnel depends in large upon the occupational structure of the organization. Therefore career mobility is a vital issue (i.e., giving workers the chance to advance if they so desire).

Underlying the concept of career mobility rests a basic assumption that career provision does in fact exist. Careers are essential factors in large organizations. Given that the individual meets the requirements of the job and performs adequately in his position he has some assurance of making his work his career (life's central occupational interest). It would appear that a career orientation is closely associated with whatever sense of occupational identity the individual may experience. This point of view obviously emphasizes how the individual perceives his position and future.

In the human services we must proceed on the assumption that the purposes and objectives of the organization are geared to utilizing the best method for meeting client needs. Encompassed in this objective is the concern for the worker's career aspirations and his role in the delivery process. Thus the logical end to any consideration of revising personnel systems and their administration in the human service industry is the consequent impact this will have on delivery systems,in meeting client needs. It would appear therefore that the efforts of administrators, planners, managers and trainers must concentrate and come to bear upon this aspect of personnel administration.

Personnel Systems

Any personnel system whether in government, industry or the human services involves the organizing and development of personnel so as to optimize their various abilities in meeting organizational goals through all aspects of administration from recruitment to retirement. The foundation of personnel administration philosophy is the dignity and worth of the individual worker. All personnel systems require continuous review of such systems as to whether they are meeting personnel needs both individually and organizationally, as well as the needs of those whom they serve.

The organizational aspects of personnel systems in public personnel administration have historically taken on three basic forms, which in many ways are interconnected:

1) Central personnel agency; such as housed in a bureau separate from other organizational divisions.
2) Operating personnel agency; as found in divisions and lower levels of the structure.
3) Administrative personnel; which encompasses supervisors and personnel technicians.[9]

In promoting the merit system the central personnel agency basically recruits and places individuals and groups in particular positions or categories which require competition for entrance and future promotion. Involved in the process is a determination of competency requirements which will theoretically attract qualified people, examination of prospective employees, and establishment of policies which affect training, promotions, evaluations, dismissals, reinstatements, and employee relations.

Early reform movements which centered around the establishment of the Civil Service gained impetus with the primary aim of alleviating the public servant from partisan loyalty in the political arena, thus the emphasis upon placement by merit. The central agency form of personnel administration was designed to ameliorate some of the evils of the job-spoils system. While this has eliminated much of the vulnerability of the system to politics, it still is not totally free of external influence. The advancing technical requirements for many jobs in addition to the public demand for a more efficient government have increased the public acceptance of the merit system approach. The role of the central agency has been two-fold, first as a control mechanism for the abuse of the old spoils system and second as a service agency to actually implement the demands for a more efficiently operated personnel service for public agencies.

The operating personnel agency (line personnel agency) differs from the central agency in various respects as pointed out by Powell.[3] He succinctly describes the characteristics of an operating personnel system as follows:

1) It is generally headed by a professional and located in a single department;
2) its existence and strength lie primarily in the hands of the director and the relations he can work out with top administrators;
3) It affords quick feedback on personnel policies and generally stresses a closeness of personnel and administrator;
4) Basically, the line or operating agency was created to face increased public business and to relieve the top administrator of some of his work load.

As a result of these developments there was a shift from personnel programs centered on law to programs centered on people. This represents somewhat of a decentralization with more emphasis on people - management integration than had been the case previously. Yet in its basic form there is a considerable overlap and resemblance to the central personnel model.

The third basic form of personnel administration involves and represents a further decentralization of the operating agency approach and essentially concerns individual personnel supervisors, managers and technicians. This level is marked by outlining the specific tasks, functions and roles of the respective personnel.

While some authorities define personnel administration primarily in terms of the central agency and operating agency, for purposes of personnel planning it is necessary to consider the overlap of all three basic approaches to personnel administration. This systems approach to personnel administration includes, for example, such components as:

1) Advising and counseling line managers in the personnel approach.

2) Diagnosing organizational health by means of various indices,
3) Providing personnel procedures and services as an aid to managers in getting more effective results, and
4) Coordinating these activities through uniform personnel policies.*

Historically, there has been an overemphasis on maintaining an efficient personnel system with less concern for its effectiveness in meeting the needs of the workers. The classical concept of personnel administration held by some managers and administrators involved assumptions regarding the belief that the average worker naturally dislikes work and would avoid it if possible. Consequently workers were seen as requiring coercion, control, and threat in order to produce and their alleged desire to be "managed" by a supervisor reinforced that assumption. Today public personnel administration needs to be responsive not only to the agency goals but especially those of client, worker, and community.

In retrospect we have attempted to administer the personnel functions through a system representing some archaic views of workers which is compounded in the human service industry. Upon inspection of local, state, and federal personnel administration programs we find ourselves in a maze of conflicting procedures, lack of adequate policies, constrictures of classification and performance standards (wherever they exist) and a magnitude of problems brought about as a result of trying to efficiently operate within a system of personnel practices which are in dire need of revision.

Job Classification Issues

The human service industry and the personnel function of management are not new and yet a survey of the literature specifically dealing with personnel management in the human service area indicates that it has only been in the past five years that administrators in this industry have begun to raise questions in the literature and suggest new strategies to redesign the system. The majority of the work appears to describe how programs developed in other industries, primarily private industry, may be adapted to the needs of human services. The literature is quite limited in the three critical problem areas requiring attention — job classification, employee evaluation and career mobility.

Jobs or positions may be classified for a variety of reasons and each reason may require a specific set of criteria against which jobs can be evaluated and grouped. Job classification, as a tool of the personnel administration function in any industry, is designed to accomplish basically the same set of objectives. The degree to which these objectives are met is related to the skillful administration of the personnel management function. The objectives of a job classification system were clearly stated over thirty years ago:

> "To carry on effectively over a period of time the continuous operations of personnel administraiion such as fixing pay, establishing qualification standards, recruiting and testing personnel, and maintaining effective working forces certain tools of administration are required. One of the most important of these administrative aids is that which facilitates the establishment and current maintenance of a logical and consistent relationship among: (1) the duties and responsibilities of positions, (2) the standards of qualifications to fill them and, (3) where employment conditions are substantially the same, the salaries paid. Position classification is this tool."[8]

The literature survey indicates that many administrators never got beyond the "fixing of pay". So much emphasis was placed in this area that many began to confuse job classification with a pay plan and the other equally important functions of setting standards, appropriate testing and adequate training.

While there is little in the literature specifically relating to job classification in the human service industry this does not mean that jobs have not been classified or work done in this area. Early in the nineteen hundreds some state agencies concerned with public administration and welfare were beginning to work toward an equitable method of salary determination and also end the political influence in these fields. In the early thirties when the full impact of the depression increased the need for human services, the federal government finally became involved in public welfare on a grand scale. The Social Security Act of 1935 stipulated seven conditions which a state must meet prior to the approval of any specific federal aid programs in that state. One provision stated that all welfare agency personnel must be selected from merit system or civil service lists established by competitive examination.

By this time the need for human services was so great that federal and state agencies were the only organizations large enough to meet the need. Small private agencies who in the past provided most of the service simply could not handle the load. The size and scope of these public agencies was such that it would be impossible to handle each job on an individual basis. As some administrators had learned earlier there was no other way to logically establish a merit system without some method of job classification.

Developing a Classification System

The first step in determining job classifications is to define the purpose of the system. What needs will it fill? What goals will it achieve? In writing out the system's goals and objectives it is necessary to be specific. Nothing can be made to operate satisfactorily when its design is based on vague or ill-defined purposes. No matter what classification system is used, the job description is the basis for all of them.

> "A job description is a word picture (in writing) of the organizational relationships, responsibilities and specific duties that constitute a given job or position. It defines scope or responsibility and continuing work assignments that are sufficiently different from those of other jobs to warrant a specific title."[6]

The preparation of a job description must be done in such a manner that all who read it will reach the same understanding. Some organizations use skilled job analysts to prepare a job analysis prior to writing the job description. A detailed job analysis is seldom usable as the job description. The job description is usually an abstract of the analysis work sheets. Another approach is to have the employee himself sketch or outline his job activities. A structured outline is a job questionnaire which is used to lead the employee or his supervisor through all the aspects of the job. When properly prepared and completed there is enough data so that a satisfactory job description can be prepared. Regardless of their origin, job descriptions must be extremely accurate if they are to successfully serve their purpose.

In developing an approach to classification there are four basic methods of evaluating jobs so they may be placed into some meaningful order or series of groups: 1) Ranking system, 2) Classification system, 3) Point system, and 4) Factor comparison system.[7] While these methods will be discussed later, the point system and the factor comparison system are the most widely used. There is no one plan that is best for all organizations and a plan that is successful in one field will not necessarily be successful in another.

In implementing a new system it is necessary to classify all the jobs according to the procedures established for the specific evaluation method selected. Continuous evaluation of a classification system is crucial; does it meet the goals and objectives as defined? The evaluation process should be an integral part of the program. It is important to give the classification system time to work. Obvious errors will need correcting as soon as possible but it is most important not to abandon the system if it does not immediately perform properly.

Employee Evaluation

The actual evaluation of an employee is usually performed by his immediate supervisor. However, the tools and procedures are usually developed by the personnel organization in conjunction with management personnel. An employee is going to be evaluated by his supervisor whether or not a formal system exists and the impact an evaluation program has on the on-going success of the worker and the organization is considerable. Since poorly administered evaluation schemes can have a significant detrimental effect, careful planning must be used when developing and implementing the procedures for an evaluation program. The same care must also be used in subsequent merit ratings through "an orderly, systematic method of evaluating the present and potential usefulness of employees to their organization."[8] This distinction between "present" and "potential" is important especially when the purposes of the program are being developed.

The emerging change in management's attitude toward the employee has resulted in a more humanistic approach to personnel management's philosophies and techniques. In the past, many pre-employment evaluation systems seemed to be designed to "screen out" individuals rather than "screen in". Some systems were intentionally designed to screen out specific groups (race, religion, age, sex). Once employed, an employee was usually rated solely on the basis of job performance — could he do the job? Termination, a "screening out" procedure, was the most common solution for unsatisfactory performance.

In the last several years many organizations have been placing more emphasis on determining an individual's potential at both the pre-employment level and at subsequent levels of evaluation. Change in management philosophy in seeking new ways to recruit and retain workers, though altruistic in appearance, has important economic considerations. This approach may increase initial costs through comprehensive and sometimes longer training programs. However these added costs can be offset by substantial future savings through improved morale and retention rates. Industries faced with shortages of skilled manpower and high rates of turnover have found that they must improve their personnel policies in order to attract and keep good employees.

There are three basic methods for evaluating employees: rating scales, employee comparison systems, and check lists.[9] Rating scales, the most common method, are designed to rate an employee against some defined standard. The rating scale usually provides a means for identifying the degrees to which the employee meets the standard. Point values for the various degrees are commonly used to allow a direct conversion to a total merit figure. The format of a graphic rating scale normally uses a trait (promptness) with varying degrees of compliance. A multiple-step rating system is usually limited to less than ten choices as opposed to a theoretically infinite number with the graphical system.

Employee comparison systems generally rate an employee's performance relative to another employee's performance on the same job. They may also be used to compare employees on specific factors of the job. In a paired comparison system each employee is individually rated against every other employee. The number of times an individual is selected is used as the basis for evaluation. The rank order system simply requires the rater to put all the employees on a job in a rank from one to the last employee. A forced distribution system has the rater place the employee in one specific category out of a limited number of possibilities. Usually these are represented in terms of "upper 10%", "next 20%" and so on to the "bottom 10%". Employee comparison systems can be very simple especially when only one or two factors are being compared. When a number of factors and employees are involved it becomes quite complicated.

Check lists are easy to use but are extremely complicated in their construction. The rater checks off specific characteristics of behavior each of which carries a specific point value. The total value is used as the basis of the evaluation with low scores normally indicating poor ratings. Because of their complexity in determining the statements of behavior and their point values they are probably the least used of the three basic plans.

There is some feeling that the use of standards, as those developed for rating scales, does not provide a valid basis for judgment because of variations among raters in their interpretation of the standards and the validity of the standards themselves as they relate to the job. The basic employee comparison system eliminates this potential problem by not relating an individual's performance to a job but to another person's performance. Rating scales, on the other hand, provide a much better method of relating the rating to the employee. It gives him a better "picture" as well as giving him specific areas of strengths and weaknesses which is of extreme importance. The check list attempts to overcome any bias on the part of the rater so the rating can be as objective as possible. This system is also difficult to relate to the employee. It is not possible to say that there is one "best" plan of the three basic plans. Each has certain advantages and disadvantages which must be carefully examined and weighed as to their individual and total impact on the overall purpose of the system.

Conclusions

A careful assessment of personnel systems particularly in regard to the human service industry seems an inevitable concern for public administrators if we are to expect effective and efficient implementation of human services. Obviously, the target for change must be directed toward the service system as well as the administrators of personnel policy. It is highly feasible that personnel administrators may prove to be the most significant agents of change in view of their close relationship to the system.

The initial inquiry into the problems and issues of public personnel administration might begin by examining the problems and issues as viewed by a central personnel agency versus the operating personnel agency, as these perspectives are likely to take differing views as to what constitutes an issue in personnel administration. This could lead to considerations of the structural effectiveness of the two systems, emphasizing their function and ability to meet the objectives and needs of their organization, workers, and clients. Comprehensive evaluation of personnel systems could identify the various areas which need intensive redesign and modification as well as new areas of concern which have been glossed over or neglected by existing practices.

NOTES

[1] Edwin B. Flippo, *Principles of Personnel Management* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971), p. 5.

[2] Norman John Powell, *Personnel Administration in Government* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956), p. 161.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 171-72.

[4] Paul Pigors and Charles A. Myers, *Personnel Administration* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969), pp. 47-48.

[5] Civil Service Assembly, *Position Classification in the Public Service* (Chicago, Illinois: Public Personnel Association, 1941, reprinted 1970), p. 33.

[6] Pigors and Myers, *Op. Cit.*, p. 347.

[7] J. F. Mee, *Personnel Handbook* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1952), p. 175.

[8] *Ibid.*, p. 281.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 289.

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Using Functional Job Analysis To Redesign Jobs

Philip L. Smith

Across the nation human service organizations are experimenting with new methods of service delivery, with new programs and with new worker types. Few human service organizations, public or private, have escaped the ground swell of the so called "manpower revolution". Large public agencies under federal mandate have greatly increased the number of paraprofessionals working in service programs. The paraprofessional has been recognized as one who can contribute greatly to the quality and range of services provided by human service organizations; no longer is he cast exclusively in custodial and clerical roles. At the same time, large public agencies are recognizing the contributions of the community college associate degree technicians. These persons are beginning to make their mark in community programming, even though at one time they were generally found within the confines of the institution. The Baccalaureate graduate is providing a wide range of services to a broadly defined clientele, while Master's level workers are being utilized in specialized areas of middle management. In the private sector we have recently witnessed significant revisions in the service programs of private human service organizations. In many areas of the country a number of

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human service organizations supported primarily by United Fund programs have been consolidated in a move toward economy of effort. Consequently, staffing patterns have been reassessed and even the most traditionally staffed private agency is utilizing a range of personnel in the provision of service.

As services and staffing patterns are redesigned in human service organizations, personnel systems are being reevaluated. There is an increasing recognition on the part of personnel managers that personnel systems must ultimately be based upon a careful analysis of the service delivery system. Not only must jobs be restructured to provide the flexibility in personnel administration necessary to accomplish new service objectives but also increased attention is being directed to restructuring personnel systems to accommodate the career aspirations of workers. Personnel systems therefore, are being viewed from two perspectives: (1) redefining jobs for more functional definitions; and (2) redefining jobs in such a manner as to reflect the concept of the career lattice.

As personnel administrators have begun to reexamine their systems of personnel classification in human service organizations, several new technologies have emerged that hold promise as viable methodologies for reorganization. One of the most notable of these new technologies is functional job analysis which has been adapted by the W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research to meet the needs of human service organizations. This chapter will highlight some of the major concepts of functional job analysis as applied to the redesign of personnel systems. Particular attention will be given to job components, training content and performance standards.*

A Systems Approach to Job Design

A systems approach to job design provides a technique for deciding what work must get done and what workers must do in order to accomplish the purpose, goals and objectives of an organization. Functional job analysis as a systems approach depends upon the ability of the organization to define and explicitly state its purpose, goals and objectives. Within any system it is important that all interrelated elements (subsystems) and their activities are coordinated in some logical fashion according to a master purpose that converts inputs into outputs. A critical assumption in a human service organization is that the system has been able to successfully define its purpose and

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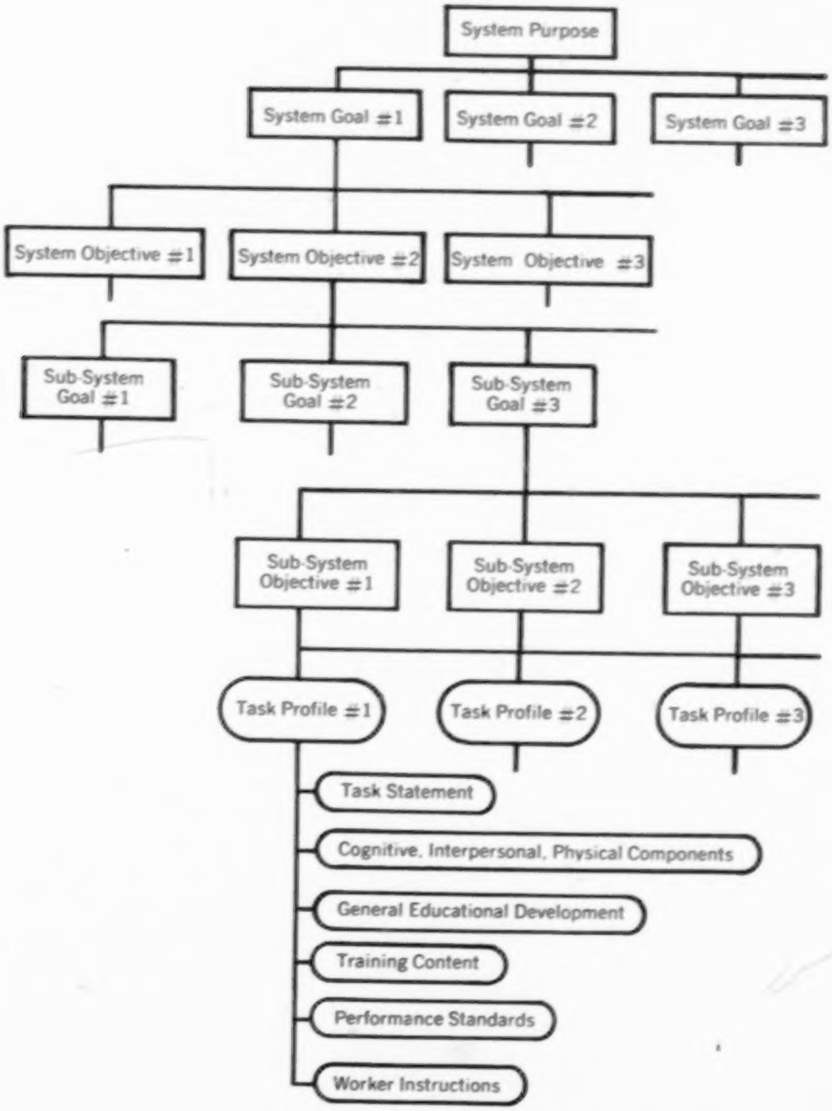
*The information contained in this section was extracted from several publications of the W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, which are largely the work of Sidney A. Fine and Wretha W. Wiley. No specific references will be made to any of these publications in this chapter; however, a selected bibliography of functional job analysis may be found at the end of this chapter.

Figure 1

A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO JOB ANALYSIS


System Purpose
System Goal #1
System Goal #2
System Goal #3
System Objective #1
System Objective #2
System Objective #3
Sub-System Goal #1
Sub-System Goal #2
Sub-System Goal #3
Sub-System Objective #1
Sub-System Objective #2
Sub-System Objective #3
Task Profile #1
Task Profile #2
Task Profile #3
Task Statement
Cognitive, Interpersonal, Physical Components
General Educational Development
Training Content
Performance Standards
Worker Instructions

subsequently its goals and objectives in accordance with the range of human needs brought to the organization by its clientele.

Functional job analysis is a technology developed some twenty years ago in the private sector and is basically an industrial model traditionally used by managers of industry to assist them in making management decisions about "who" does "what" in any given area of enterprise. In the past five years it has been adapted to the human service industry largely through the work of the W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research. As an adaptation for the human services it has become a useful technology designed to be: (1) a conceptual system for defining dimensions of work activity and thus a way of conceiving the world of work; (2) an observational method of looking at worker activity; and (3) a method of analysis to evaluate the design of work and its performance. Its two prime components are categorization and analysis.

The application of a systems approach to planning in an organization assists the staff of an organization in: (1) measuring progress towards specified ends; (2) organizing resources (money, time, manpower, technology); and (3) making internal changes in accord with changing needs and conditions as it pursues its purpose. "System purpose" refers to the ultimate end result desired by the organization. From "system purpose" are derived a set of intermediate results referred to as "system goals" from which are derived a set of immediate or short range results called "system objectives". As "system objectives" are defined they become "subsystem goals" leading to a further refinement of objectives. See Figure 1 for a schema which graphically shows the relationship between system purposes, goals and objectives.

In the human service industry, "systems" may be defined as agencies, state departments, or branches of governmental bodies depending upon the degree of specificity desired in system definition. For example, in the private sector of human services a Family Service Agency could be considered a system to the end of defining purpose, goals and objectives. Organizational units such as intake, information and referral, and counseling would be considered as subsystems. This provides a rather simplified example. In the public sector a large state umbrella agency of human services could be considered a system. Subsequently, the operating divisions within the large state department would be considered subsystems and in turn their bureaus could be considered sub-subsystems. Since subsystems are considered to be blocks of work which allow for the division and allocation of resources, this process can be carried to any extent required.

As an example of how purpose, goals and objectives are developed, let us examine a state agency charged with the administration of programs for the mentally retarded. The process of task analysis begins at the point where subsystem objectives are identified.

> System: State agency of mental retardation
>
> Purpose: To achieve the highest degree of well being possible for all mentally retarded children and their families within the state.
>
> Goal #1: To place in approved foster homes X percent of all parentless children presently residing in state institutions within two years.
>
> Objective #1: To establish X number of approved foster homes in the state within one year.
>
> Subsystem — Foster home placement services
>
> Goal #1: To establish X number of approved foster homes in the state within one year.
>
> Objective #1: To complete within three months a survey of all potentially suitable foster homes within the state.

Task Analysis

In task analysis, task refers to the smallest unit of activity which makes an immediate contribution to the subsystem objective. A series of task profiles are developed for each subsystem objective. The task profile contains the following information:

> 1. Task Statement: The task statement contains information about *what work must get done* (which refers to the subsystem objective) and *what workers do* (refers to worker functions). A good task statement contains the following information: who — performs what action (input) — to whom or what — to produce or achieve what (output) — using what work aids — upon what instructions.
>
> 2. Cognitive, Interpersonal and Physical Components: This refers to the relationship of the task to three properties — data, people and things.
>
> 3. General Educational Development: This refers to the language, quantitative and reasoning skills necessary to perform the task.
>
> 4. Performance Standards: This refers to the criteria against which actual results of the task are compared. Performance standards consist of: (1) qualitative or descrip-

tive standards which are subjective and generally nonspecific statements about qualities of behavior such as speed, tact, etc.; (2) quantitative or numerical standards which refer to objective performance criteria which require no interpretation such as how many interviews can be conducted in an hour.

5. Training Content: Training content is developed in two categories that reflect the various components of the task statement: (1) general training (functional skills) refers to those competencies that relate to data, people, and things. This training often takes place in the context of the academic setting; (2) specific training refers to those competencies that enable an individual to perform a specific task according to the standards required to satisfy the market.

6. Worker Instructions: This refers to the degree of prescription or discretion implicit in the task.

Ordinal scales exist to rate cognitive, interpersonal and physical components as well as general educational development and worker instructions. For example, a worker function scale is used to rate the level of the task in relation to data, people and things. To illustrate, "comparing" is the least complex data function and is given a rating of one, while "synthesizing" is the most complex level of data functioning and is given a rating of six. The seven point people function scale ranges from "taking instructions" to "mentoring". The function scale for things has only three levels: "handling", "manipulating", and "precision working". Each task is also rated for the relative importance of the task in its orientation towards data, people, and things on a percentage basis. For example, a given task may be primarily data related and receive a percentage evaluation of sixty-five percent, while the orientation to people may be twenty-five percent, and the orientation to things ten percent.

A worker instruction scale is used to rate the relative degree of prescription or discretion involved in any given task. A worker instruction rating of "one" would refer to a task that is highly prescribed while a worker instruction rating of "eight" would refer to a task in which the worker exercises a high degree of discretion. Similarly, an ordinal scale exists to rate language, quantitative and reasoning skills in general educational development.

Task Clustering

The premise of functional job analysis is that jobs are created by grouping a number of tasks which have been described in a task profile.

A job then is a grouping or clustering of task statements. This can be done in a variety of ways. Homogenous groupings can be developed relative to the worker function scale based either on level or orientation. Homogenous groupings can also be developed from the ordinal rating of general educational development or for that matter, from the worker instruction scale. Another alternative is the heterogenous grouping method. An application of this approach would insure a mixture of tasks relative to the worker function scale, general educational development and the worker instruction scale.

Homogenous groupings are obviously least complex and more systematic but there are critical limitations. Such groupings can easily lead to a job factoring approach of separating tasks and grouping them for jobs on a complexity basis. This often results in workers with less education being delegated routine responsibilities that provide neither challenge nor diversity. Heterogenous groupings on the other hand, provide for more job diversity and recognize the responsibility of the system to arrange jobs in such a manner to both reflect the needs of the service clientele and the capabilities of the worker in the process of fulfilling the purpose, goals and objectives of the organization.

This raises a critical question for personnel administrators. Do you tailor jobs for workers or fit workers into jobs? While functional job analysis is a useful technology for redesigning jobs it does not represent a total solution for integrating the needs of the field (both client, worker and organization) with the personnel system. Therefore, we must look for additional conceptual tools.

Making the System Responsive

One of the greatest problems encountered by personnel administrators in designing or redesigning personnel systems is that of adequately understanding and gauging the needs of the field. How do you best reflect the needs of the service delivery system (program needs) in the personnel system? In a human service organization this is a particularly important question since both the products of the system and the assembly line itself are often difficult to explicitly define. Consequently, program administrators as well as personnel administrators are looking for new concepts to help them describe and categorize what workers do. Such a conceptual framework has been developed by the Southern Regional Education Board (the S.R.E.B. role model). A description of this model and how it can be used to understand the service delivery system is contained in Chapter 2.

To recap briefly, the S.R.E.B. role model identifies twelve worker roles — outreach, broker, advocate, mobilizer, care giver, behavior changer, teacher, consultant, data manager, community planner, evaluator, and administrator—that were derived from an assessment of the range of human problems presented to human service organizations and consequently the range of objectives that those organizations must establish to meet human needs (Teare and McPheeters, 1970). The application of this approach in a human service organization can provide program administrators with the necessary tools to describe, categorize, and communicate the needs of the service delivery system to personnel administrators. For example, an agency charged with establishing information and referral services for ex-offenders can categorize their program objectives in terms of linkage, mobilization, and information processing. Consequently they may identify the worker roles of broker, mobilizer, evaluator, community planner, and data manager as being most important to the successful operation of such a program. Both the program objectives and the worker roles identified can be analyzed in terms of the worker functions scale previously described in the process of task analysis, where linkage and mobilization are primarily "people" functions while information processing is primarily a "data" function. Describing program and worker functions in terms of the S.R.E.B. role model can be done in consonance with the "systems approach" of functional job analysis and can serve as a mechanism for providing "clues" or a guide for personnel administrators in applying task analysis.

Functional job analysis and the S.R.E.B. role model can also be blended or used in a complementary way to group tasks into jobs. Neither tasks nor roles represent jobs, however both can be grouped or clustered into jobs. If the two approaches are used congruently, the twelve roles can be applied as organizing themes for new jobs after the process of task analysis has been completed. For example, given a series of program objectives and the accompanying task profiles, tasks may be grouped (drawing from different program objective areas) according to each of the S.R.E.B. roles. On the other hand, program objectives may be first analyzed in terms of the twelve roles and grouped accordingly. Task analysis then may be applied for further definition. In either case the S.R.E.B. role model can become an organizing theme. It is important to remember that the S.R.E.B. role model allows the planner and/or administrator to refer back to the delivery system and provides something of a cross-reference for utilizing functional job analysis.

As personnel planners from the central agency and the operating agency work with program administrators to redesign personnel systems, functional job analysis can be a useful technology. It must be stated, however, that the personnel system ultimately serves the service delivery system and efforts to redesign jobs must continuously be reviewed by both organizational components. The thoughtful utilization of the new concepts and technologies discussed here can result in long strides toward more collaborative planning for more integrated and complementary systems in the human service industry.

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Paraprofessionals In Public Welfare: A Case Study Of Innovation In Job Development

David M. Leroy

In its 1970-71 budget request the Division of Family Services requested permission to establish a pilot program to determine the value of utilizing existing or potential welfare service clients in paraprofessional positions in their service delivery program. The request for additional funds and positions was denied but permission was granted to conduct the program if existing positions within the program could be freed and utilized. An administrative decision was made in October to have 103 Social Worker positions filled with paraprofessional personnel by December 4, 1970, so that a report evaluating their use could be submitted to the legislature for consideration.

In less than a two month period Division of Family Services personnel were charged with the responsibility of:

1. determining those duties and responsibilities that paraprofessional employees could assume that would make a positive contribution to the existing service delivery system,

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2. developing and finalizing a class specification,
3. determining and obtaining approval of a realistic pay range for the class,
4. determining in what districts throughout the state employees in these positions could be most effectively utilized and completing a position questionnaire for each paraprofessional position assignment,
5. obtaining approval for the establishment of each position from the Division of Personnel,
6. recruiting a sufficient number of persons from the client or potential client group in each district to enable district supervisors to have a reasonable choice in making a final employment decision for each position,
7. developing a selection program that would aid in identifying those most capable of performing the duties and responsibilities assigned to persons in the class of positions established,
8. administering the selection devices decided upon a statewide basis and receiving and evaluating results,
9. employing those persons selected, and
10. planning and organizing orientation and training programs for entering employees.

Completion of any one of the steps listed would present a formidable challenge to the staff of an agency that must, in the same time span, continue to carry out its normal programs and activities. That all of the steps were successfully completed in the short time span allotted is an indication of the resourcefulness and dedication of Division of Family Services personnel and also points up the fact that the Division of Personnel and service agencies can constructively work together toward the completion of a common goal when channels of communication are opened and expectations are clearly stated.

The first step in the program was the formation of an agency subcommittee whose specific functions were to deal with each of the steps previously outlined and coordinate full implementation of the proposed program. This chapter outlines the committee's activities, briefly summarizes the steps that were taken in launching this paraprofessional program and reviews the progress and preliminary results of this program.[1]

The subcommittee's first point of consideration was the drafting of a class specification which would define the working role of the employees to be utilized in this paraprofessional program. Two broad service areas were selected: payments and services. The decision was made to set no formal minimum educational requirements, however applicants would be required to:

1. be reasonably mature, flexible, and able to relate to others,
2. have the capacity to look at and accept differences in others,
3. be responsible, able to maintain confidential knowledge, and identify with the goals of the agency,
4. have the ability to accept supervision and constructive criticism and function in a group,
5. have demonstrated capacity to deal with responsibilities, and
6. be able to write or print legibly, follow instructions, maintain simple records, perform simple arithmetic computations and be able to effectively converse in the language indigenous to a given area.

In the final class specification, the minimum training and experience requirements were set at an ability to follow oral and written instructions.

The proposed job specification for "Social Work Assistant" was forwarded to the Bureau of Classification in the Division of Personnel and plans were made to allocate staff, obtain position questionnaires, begin recruiting and construct a written examination that would not be overly threatening to the applicant population and still provide objective information about the capabilities of each applicant. The written test was deemed desirable because no educational minimum was set for entrance into the class. At one of the early meetings of the committee, the written test for Homemaker, a high school level class, was reviewed for possible use and although portions of it were thought appropriate, it was decided to develop a written test specifically for the class of Social Work Assistant.

Content of Test

The areas of knowledge, skills and abilities to be sampled on the test were determined by an analysis of the duties to be performed by employees in the proposed class of positions by the members of the subcommittee on paraprofessional jobs. The tasks and operations to be performed by employees in these positions were outlined as follows:

I. Interview welfare recipients and applicants.
    a. obtain background information
    b. provide information about Family Services assistance programs
    c. help teach home management practices

- d. inform recipients of community resources available to them
- e. obtain information about current status of applicants for family assistance
- f. assist applicants in the completion of forms

II. Perform office work in connection with the operation of a payments unit, an adult services unit, or children's services unit.

- a. file and pull cards and folders
- b. answer telephone and supply information
- c. fill out forms
- d. perform arithmetic computations
- e. collate information

III. Provide in-home help to family assistance recipients.

- a. teach home management techniques
- b. care for children
- c. help with preparation of balanced meals, budgets, and shopping
- d. teach basic first aid and home safety
- e. make suggestions and aid in home maintenance and upkeep
- f. recommend recreational activities and suggest improved health practices

IV. Help in planning for and meeting the basic needs of individuals and families.

- a. consult with social work staff about the status of recipients
- b. discuss possible ways of improving conditions
- c. help implement volunteer programs
- d. check documents necessary for verifying assistance eligibility.

From an evaluation of the duties to be performed, it was determined that knowledge, skills and abilities in the following major areas would be sampled: communication skills, home management, and office and personal relations. The subject matter content recommended for inclusion on the test was: vocabulary, alphabetical filing, verbal analogies, reading comprehension, form completion, child care, home safety, home maintenance, first aid, basic arithmetic, attitudes, public relations, worker relations, and social awareness.

An item pool of approximately four hundred multiple choice items was selected from material obtained from the Division of State Merit Systems' test service, the test lending service of the Public Personnel Association, and from the test item file of the Division of Personnel. New test items were written for some of the areas to be covered.

Each test item was reviewed by each member of the subcommittee for appropriateness, clarity of content, accuracy, and manner of presentation. Since there was no stated educational minimum for entrance to this class, particular attention was given to the level of difficulty and clarity of the meaning of the words used in the test items. Wherever possible, less difficult or more appropriate words were substituted. New test items were also written by committee members. All test items selected by the committee for possible use were then read by a homemaker supervisor and two employees working in homemaker positions. These persons were instructed to read each question, paying particular attention to clarity of content and terminology. Suggested changes in terminology and those items where interpretation of the premise was requested were reviewed and revised where necessary.

The paraprofessional committee then indicated the percentage of time to be spent in each work activity to be performed by Social Work Assistants. The number of items selected from the reviewed item pool to sample knowledge, skills and abilities in each work activity area was determined by the percentage assigned.[2]

Test Administration

All test material necessary for the administration of the test was sent to Family Services District Supervisors throughout the state. The same answer sheets, oral and written instructions were used during administration as are used in the regular testing program of the Division of Personnel. Candidates were given four hours in which to complete the 75 item test. The returned answer sheets were both hand and machine scored. Two of the 2O5 candidates tested failed to complete the test answer sheets properly.

Since the Division of Family Services wished to make assignments to two different job areas, social work home and office assistants, subscores for each area tested and the total raw score achieved by each candidate were sent to the personnel office of the Division of Family Services, along with a frequency chart of test results.

Since Social Work Assistant positions were allocated in many of the districts throughout the state, it was necessary to consider the performance of candidates in each district when setting an operational passing point. In addition, some consideration was necessary for the establishment of a list of eligibles for replacement purposes in the event of early Social Work Assistant turnovers. A minimum qualifying score of 5O, two-thirds of the total raw score, was selected.

The test results for each candidate were forwarded to the district supervisor along with instructions to individually contact each candidate and review their test performance with them. Candidates achieving a low qualifying or failing score were given the opportunity of retaking the test during the regular Division of Personnel testing program.

Test Results

The unit response and item response cards punched during the machine scoring process were subjected to the computerized examination and item analysis programs utilized for all Division of Personnel tests. Twelve cards errored out during the examination and item analysis program so the data reflects the performance of 193 candidates rather than the entire original test population. (See Appendix I, sections 1, 2 and 3)

About 1/5 of those taking the test were 24 or younger. About 1/4 were 35 and older. The median age was 3O and the average age between 3O and 31. No statistically significant relationship was found between various age levels and test performance. Only 8 of the 2O5 candidates were male. The mean test score for males was 62.1; for females, 61.8. The mean score of the 122 candidates who indicated on their application that they had completed high school was 62. The mean score of those who did not indicate graduation was 6O. An "F test" of the distribution of test scores for these two groups indicated that they could well have come from the same population. No significant correlation was found between education and test performance. No statistically significant difference was found between the test performance of black and white candidates.

Preliminary Assessment of Performance

An empirical investigation of the relationship between test scores and Social Work Assistant job performance will be conducted during the early part of 1973. That which follows is a recap of information that was obtained in July 1972 from the personnel files of 124 persons (93 blacks and 31 whites) who had been employed as Social Work Assistants during the early part of the Social Work Assistant program.

Twenty-eight of those employed as Social Work Assistants were no longer employed at the time this review was made. Seventeen of these were white and eleven were black. This difference seems of interest because the seventeen represents approximately 55%of the thirty-one whites employed and the eleven only 12% of the ninety-three blacks employed. For some reason or another a greater percentage of black employees seemed able to adjust to the job of Social Work Assistant than did the white employees.

One hundred and six of the personnel files reviewed contained annual supervisory ratings. These ratings performed by the immediate supervisors of Social Work Assistants throughout the state revealed that a majority of those employed were exceeding what would be considered simply a satisfactory performance. Thirty-four percent or thirty-six received a basic satisfactory rating. Those remaining received from 1 to 12 points above this basic satisfactory rating.

Since annual supervisory rating data was available and there was a need for a good predictor of success in order to fill new Social Work Assistant positions, it was decided that valuable information could be gained from an inspection of the relationship between supervisory ratings and written test scores. An inspection of the scatter diagram prepared revealed that the likelihood of selecting an employee who would receive a higher than average rating increased substantially with employees who had achieved a test score of 59 or above. This finding was found to be significant at the 5% level(See Appendix I, Section 4).

Of the fifty-four Social Work Assistants rated with a numerical score of 25 and above, 91% (49) had scored 59 or above on the test. The remaining 9% (5) had scored 58 or below. It would be expected from this that future selections, if made from those who scored above 58 on the Social Work Assistant test, would result in a large percentage of employees in the 25 and above rated category.

The value of this test as a prediction device will not be known until the follow-up study on the performance of those employed in the class of Social Work Assistant has been completed. No significant correlation was found relative to age, education, race or sex; it is hoped that this will not be so for job performance. The test scores achieved by candidates at all levels of education for this paraprofessional position indicate the possibility that, contrary to current beliefs, a written test may be used in the selection process for positions of this kind without imposing undue hardship on candidates for this type of position.

Paraprofessional Program Evaluation

The success of those employed in this program has been outlined in an evaluation report of the Social Work Assistants Program written by Ernestine Smith of the Bureau of Children's Services. The following are quotations from that report:

> "*Value of Social Work Assistants Program*
>
> Social Work Assistants have been able to assist in the delivery of services, interpret the agency's role and requirements, relate to clients and help develop resources. Community reaction has been positive. They have been used for contacts with health agencies, Vocational Rehabilitation, City Hall, Court House, Commodity

Centers, Economic Opportunity Office, Salvation Army, churches and community organizations. The agency's image has improved in the eyes of the client and many Assistants have been removed from the agency's assistance roles.

Assignments

Social Work Assistants have mainly been assigned to Units with supervision and evaluation by the Unit Supervisor or a lead worker. Assignments generally have been from this person. In some instances assignments have been by Social Workers with overall coordination by the Supervisor. Social Work Assistants have shown the most growth where they have originally been given assignments they were capable of handling and then given increasing responsibility along with additional specific training.

Special Assignments

Some Social Work Assistants have handled varied assignments from several units or have handled some assignments of an ill or vacationing Social Worker or have relieved at the switchboard. One Social Work Assistant in Duval County is assigned to the first agency nursery at the Region #4 Boulevard Office. This is short term nursery care to provide mothers visiting the office an opportunity to have an interview with the Social Worker without the interruption of child care. One Assistant in Region #2 works one night per week at a comprehensive health clinic as a receptionist, handles payments, has responsibility for registering applications for assistance and helps with the completion of necessary forms.

Resourcefulness

Social Work Assistants have been especially good in locating and helping the development of resources. An example of an Assistant's resourcefulness was the setting up of vocational classes in Union, Bradford, and Putnam counties. This Assistant was given cooperation by the Vocational and Technical School. She also located space for nurses to hold clinics in several small communities.

Social Work Assistants Own Personal Gain and Growth

Assistants have experienced many new life experiences such as meeting children at the airport, learning to drive, purchasing their own car and purchasing a home. Many see their main achievement as being able to support their family without agency assistance

> grants. Many have acquired an improved status in the eyes of their own children, friends and neighbors. Growth has been observed in better grooming habits, language development, improved self-awareness, confidence, better understanding of racial and cultural differences and a recognition of prejudices. Assistants have shown growth in accepting additional responsibilities, working in team-work relationships with Social Workers, and in asking for supervisory assistance.
>
> *Problems*
>
> There have been problems as expected with all new programs. Some Assistants because of health or personal problems were incapable of sustained employment at this time. Some Assistants were incapable of performing their assignment. Two Assistants currently have conditional status. However, two received above satisfactory evaluations. There has been a minimum of friction caused by the Assistant's entry into the agency structure.
>
> *Suggestions and Recommendations*
>
> Supervisors' main suggestions have been the hiring of more Social Work Assistants and their assignment to all categories of assistance. It is felt that the Social Work Assistants are a valuable asset to the agency, are capable of handling a variety of tasks and should be assigned by Regional plan to those areas where they are most needed."

The major purpose of the Social Work Assistant employment program was to determine if paraprofessional employees could make a positive contribution to the Division of Family Services delivery program. The evaluation cited indicates that they can. A further and perhaps stronger indication of the success of this program is reflected in the fact that the approximately 300 Social Work Assistant positions requested in the 1972-73 fiscal year budget request of the Division of Family Services were approved by the legislature, effective July 1, 1972.

Adjustments in job assignments have had to be made in this paraprofessional program during the two years it has been in operation. The extent of these changes is reflected quite clearly in Appendix II regarding the use of Social Work Assistants in the service programs of the Division of Family Services. This material delineates duties and responsibilities that Social Work Assistants can assume which are more comprehensive than those initially envisioned during the inception of the paraprofessional program.

Conclusions

Findings during the past two years have indicated that paraprofessional employees can perform well, tasks and assignments that were once thought to be beyond their capabilities. These findings suggest a number of questions that will need to be answered by the Division of Family Services management personnel during the coming years. Some of these are: where do employees in this paraprofessional program go from here; what education, training and experience will be available to help prepare them for upward movement in the career service; what educational hurdles will they be required to clear in order to qualify for positions that they may be able to perform in a few years because of work experience gained in service delivery programs?

Division of Family Services personnel have been innovative and enthusiastic in implementing the paraprofessional program. Perhaps this willingness to be innovative and open to new approaches will supply the answers to the questions posed by this successful paraprofessional pilot program.

NOTES

[1] This chapter is based on information obtained from a variety of sources, including Division of Family Services correspondence and memorandums, minutes of the meetings of a committee on subprofessional jobs, discussions with Martha Horne of the Division of Family Services, a report on the development and administration of the written test for Social Work Assistant, and a subprofessional program evaluation report written by Ernestine Smith of the Division of Family Services. The subcommittee on paraprofessional jobs consisted of: Miss Evelyn Bembry, Mrs. Fern Pence, Mrs. Gwen Jones, Mrs. Mary Turo, Mrs. Sara Drysdale, and Mrs. Martha Horne.

[2] David Leroy, "Social Work Assistant Construction Report," January, 1971. (mimeo.)

APPENDIX I

1. Correlation Between Total Test Score And Each Unit Of Twenty-Five Questions And Intercorrelations Between Units:

	I	II	III
T_t	.910	.889	.875
I		.721	.685
II			.661

2. Summary of Item Analysis

Level of Difficulty or Discrimination	Item Frequency Difficulty	Item Frequency Discrimination
.91 and above	24	8
.81 - .90	30	3
.71 - .80	9	10
.61 - .70	4	14
.51 - .60	3	13
.41 - .50	4	13
.31 - .40	1	9
.21 - .30	—	3
.11 - .20	—	1
.01 - .10	—	1

3. Number of candidates = 193; mean, median, mode = 61.88, 64, 68; Standard deviation = 9.21; range = 69; r (21) = .884.

4. Scatter Diagram

Number rated in each score group		Social Work Assistant test scores	Percent rated in each score group	
23 - 24	25 - above		23 - 24	25 - above
40	49	59 - 72	77	91
12	5	50 - 58	23	9
52	54		100	100

Chi square = 4.498

APPENDIX B

July 11, 1972

TO: Region Directors

FROM: E. D. Endsley, Director
Division of Family Services

RE: Use of Social Work Assistants in Services

The following material has been prepared to enable you to proceed to appropriately hire and assign your present and new social work assistant positions in the current Service Program areas. Other responsibilities may be forthcoming after the new federal regulations are published and we know what the PFP follow-up and maintenance requirements will be for each individual with whom we have developed a service plan.

The difference in the level of responsibility between the social worker and social work assistant position, in broad terms, is that the social worker will carry responsibility for eligibility determination and service plan development and the social work assistant will carry responsibility for follow-up and some direct maintenance services. Both social workers and social work assistants will have responsibility in the area of community resource development.

Social work assistants will work directly under the supervision of the unit supervisor of the program to which they are assigned. All job assignments will be made by the supervisor.

The following are examples of work that may be performed by social work assistants in various program areas. These are not all-inclusive and you may be innovative in developing other appropriate assignments as you see fit. However, the tasks which are *not* to be assigned are specific and are expected to be followed.

I *Work Incentive Program (WIN)*

Responsibilities to be Assigned:

1) Evaluating child care plans.
2) Locating vacancies and assisting parent in arranging for child care either in or outside home.
3) Visiting on planned, regular basis all providers of child care to evaluate care and to assure that child is receiving care.

4) When children are absent, finding out from parent what is the cause and helping parent understand the need for supervised care.
5) Follow-up on medical screening of children if this is not provided by day care program.
6) Verifying the accuracy of billing for child care.
7) Assisting parents secure physical examinations where needed and helping in carrying out medical instructions.
8) Follow-up of referrals of parents and youth to VR or other resources and helping them use rehabilitative services. When needed, going with the person for interviews and treatment.
9) Making home visit to determine why person did not keep assessment interview appointment.
10) Helping person arrange necessary transportation for WIN assignment, physical examination, etc.
11) Arranging for and following up on recommended nutritional counseling.
12) Making home visits after reported absences from class or other training components and encouraging parents who seem to lose interest in the program.

Responsibilities *Not* to be Assigned:

1) Joint assessment interviews with ES staff.

II *Foster Care for Children and Related Services*

Responsibilities to be Assigned:

1) Accompanying children for physical examinations and treatment.
2) Purchasing necessary clothing for children coming into care.
3) Staying with children for limited periods during the day when foster parents need to be away from home.
4) Assisting in getting children enrolled in school.
5) Locating relatives.
6) Help plan leisure time activities for children.

Responsibilities *Not* to be Assigned:

1) Study of foster homes.
2) Study of independent adoption petitions.
3) Study for Circuit Courts in Divorce situations.
4) Making decision regarding removal of child from his own or foster home.
5) Selection of foster home for a child.
6) Signing of contract or agreement for foster care.
7) Supervision of child in foster home.

III *Protective Services - Children*

Responsibilities to be Assigned:

1) Provide supportive services when children are continued under supervision in their home. Such services may include:
    a) Staying with the children at specified times to allow parent some relief.
    b) Assisting parents in getting financial assistance, food stamps, etc.
    c) Assisting parents in arranging for medical care.
    d) Assisting parents in making necessary contacts with teachers and school officials.
2) Accompanying workers when children are to be removed and helping to transport children.
3) Giving individual or group instruction in care of children.
4) Purchasing emergency clothing.

Responsibilities *Not* to be Assigned:

1) Initial investigation of abuse and neglect.
2) Preparing reports and recommendations to Court.
3) Presenting cases in Court.
4) Removal of children from home.
5) On call duty.

VI *Community Based Care for Adults*

Responsibilities to be Assigned:

A. Services to Assure Protection:
    1) Assist clients in obtaining necessary medical or psychiatric care by arranging appointments, prearranging or providing transportation, and assisting in getting prescriptions filled.

B. Services to clients in foster homes, nursing homes, boarding homes, etc.
    1) Regular visits as indicated by service plan to observe situation and identify developments that might require a change in living arrangements.
    2) Read newspapers, notes, etc., if requested. Write personal letters to friends or relatives. Arrange for talking books for persons with sight difficulties. (These applicable when volunteer services not available).
    3) Get together personal effects of clients leaving or going into a nursing home, foster home or other facility.

    4) Work with volunteers in arranging outings for those who live in nursing homes, foster homes, etc.

C. Other Tasks

    1) Recruit sponsors for foster homes.
    2) Maintain inventory of nursing home, boarding home vacancies.
    3) Follow-up visits to individuals when a service plan has been established which requires only maintenance of service effort.

Responsibilities *Not* to be Assigned:

1) Any situation involving a legal matter including filing of incompetency petitions.
2) Foster home placements.
3) No direct medication or medical advice.
4) Will not be DFS representatives for mental patients as outlined in Baker Act.

V *Community Resource Development*

Responsibilities to be Assigned:

1) Compiling and keeping up-to-date services available from other agencies.
2) Identifying services needed but not available and interpreting why service is needed.
3) Recruitment of volunteers from recipient or other low-income groups.
4) Develop opportunities for social and cultural enrichment.
   Example: Camperships for youth, tickets to community activities, arts and crafts workshops or other recreational activities for aged adults in nursing homes, boarding homes, etc.
5) Seek a community resource for a specific need.
6) Obtain appropriate films to be shown to identified groups.

Responsibilities *Not* to be Assigned:

1) Development of contracts for Purchase of Service.

VI *Home Management* (Services to enable families or individuals to remain in their own homes)

Responsibilities to be Assigned:

1) Encouraging families or individuals to make use of available health resources.
2) Assisting client in getting necessary health services including arranging transportation.

3) Follow-up on families who have not kept appointments at health department for "Early Screening of Children" Program.
4) Giving or arranging for individual or group instruction in care of children or adults.
5) Helping families or individuals work out problems with landlords to prevent evictions.
6) Helping to improve home management skills such as shopping, cleaning, budgeting, care of house, etc.
7) Help in moving a client back to his home from an institution or other facility.
8) Having utilities turned on and purchasing whatever is an absolute essential for the aged or disabled individuals.
9) Make regular visits to shut-ins living in their own homes to observe conditions and identify any problems that might require a change in living arrangements or overall service plan.
10) Teaching preparation of foods to maintain diet as prescribed.

VII *Information and Referral and/or Case Management/Client Programming*

Responsibilities to be Assigned:

1) Follow-up on all referrals to ensure that service was provided (for Title IV-A and XVI Clients for whom a service plan has been developed).
2) Helping families secure emergency food, clothing, housing, etc.
3) Provide emergency transportation.
4) Helping families faced with eviction by interceding with landlord or assisting in relocating the family.
5) Assisting adults or teenagers (non WIN) with employment or job readiness problems.
6) Follow-up on families who have not kept appointments for their children in the "Early Screening" program.

Responsibilities *Not* to be Assigned:

1) Determination of eligibility for Title IV-A and XVI Services.
2) Assessment and development of service case plans.

EDE/tas

APPENDIX III
SOCIAL WORK ASSISTANT

DISTINGUISHING CHARACTERISTICS OF WORK

This is sub-professional work providing social services in a payments unit, adult services unit or children's services unit within the Division of Family Services.

An employee in a position allocated to this class supplements the services provided by the professional staff by making home contacts on applications or active cases where forms have not been returned or when there is an indication that the applicant or recipient is unable to complete the form; assisting clients in making use of financial resources outside the Division; providing services to children and parents such as in-the-home demonstration and instruction in skills related to child care, home and yard upkeep and minor repairs, appliances and tools in the organization of housework, and other related activities.

Work is performed under the direct supervision of a higher level social worker and is reviewed in progress and upon completion.

EXAMPLES OF WORK PERFORMED

(NOTE: These examples are intended only as illustrations of the various types of work performed in positions allocated to this class. The omission of specific statements of duties does not exclude them from the position if the work is similar, related, or a logical assignment to the position.)

Provides basic information to applicants and clients regarding financial assistance, medical assistance and food stamps or commodities and services.

Participates with other social work staff in planning to meet basic needs of individuals or families.

Assists individuals in using agency and community resources through individual and group contacts.

Works with volunteers and assists in implementing volunteer programs.

Teaches practical homemaking techniques and provides other in-the-home care services.

Gathers information for social work staff.

Handles telephone calls as directed to give information and interviews applicants or recipients.

Checks documents either in the possession of a client or in a courthouse needed to substantiate or verify eligibility.

Performs related work as required.

MINIMUM TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE

Ability to follow written and oral instructions.

EFFECTIVE: 12-9-70

Personnel Classification Issues In Florida

Miles T. Dean

The evolution of formalized personnel administration systems in Florida state government was developed through the establishment of merit systems. The State Board of Social Welfare, forerunner of the State Welfare Board, initiated the first merit system in 1936 with the establishment of a program of personnel administration for that agency governed by an appointed committee. In 1937 the Florida Industrial Commission was established to fulfill part of the state's responsibilities for the Social Security program, resulting in the establishment of a separate merit system and advisory committee in December 1937. These two systems were merged March 1, 1942.

By an amendment to the Social Security Act in 1939 state health agencies receiving grants for maternal and child health were required to administer their personnel program on a merit basis as prescribed under the Federal Minimum Standards. In addition, on January 1, 1940, the Surgeon General of the U.S. Public Health Service issued the same requirement as a condition for Public Health grants to the states. To meet these requirements the Florida Crippled Children's Commission and the State Board of Health reached an agreement to establish a joint merit system in January 1941.

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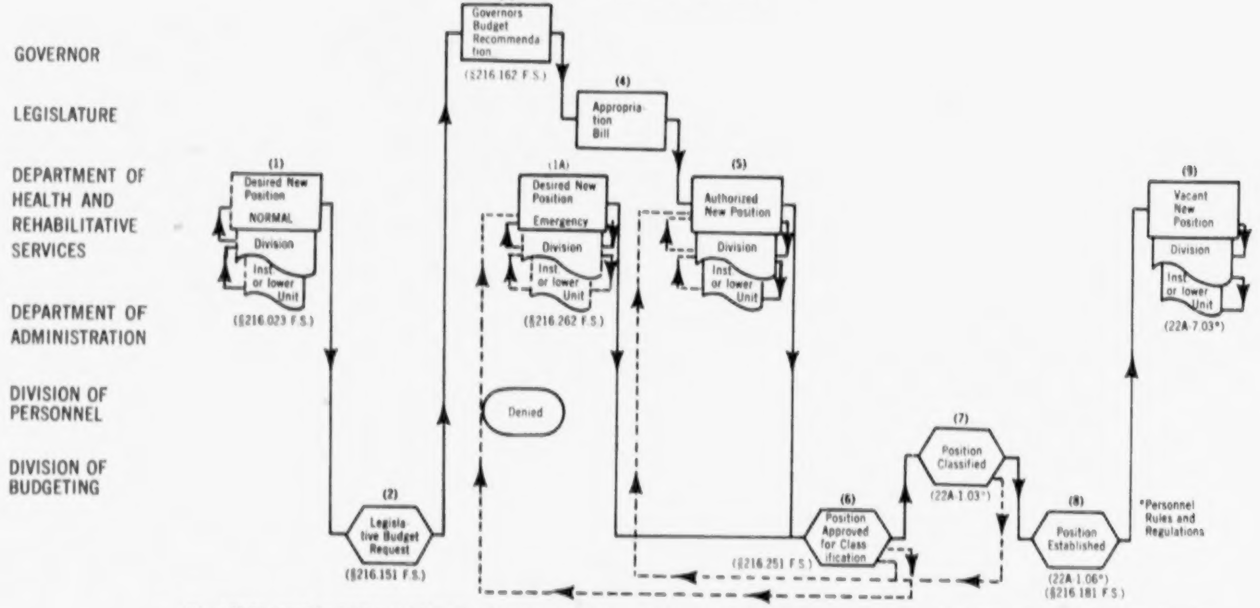
On October 15, 1946, the state merit systems were combined and a new Council appointed. The Council and its staff had limited jurisdiction in most matters. The Council recommended classification and compensation plans for the various agencies with final authority for adoption vested in the agencies. Only in a few instances were the agencies able to agree upon uniform specifications for common classes of positions and in no case were they able to establish uniform rates of pay for employees doing the same work; however, the merit system staff conducted examination programs and agencies were required to make their appointments in accordance with merit system provisions. Generally post audits were made to assure conformance with the merit system provisions in both the employment of personnel and payment of salaries in accordance with the approved pay plan of each agency.

Proposals for a statewide merit system program were introduced in the legislative sessions in 1949 and 1951. Governor Dan McCarty, in his inaugural address in January 1953, announced the development of the state personnel program to be submitted to the 1955 session. In his inaugural address of 1955 Governor Leroy Collins stated that the establishment of a statewide personnel program would be one of the major objectives of his administration. The measure, providing that the administrative head of each agency had the option of placing his agency under the merit system, passed both houses of the legislature by unanimous vote and became law on June 2O, 1955.

The Merit System Law granted authority for the preparation and adoption of classification and pay plans and rules and regulations governing procedure with regard to merit system administration.[1] This was the first time in Florida history that a body outside the agencies had the authority to establish classes and to approve the allocation of positions as well as to establish pay for the various classes. Rules established pursuant to that law provided that agencies could submit proposed specification and pay ranges to the Merit System Director. The Merit System Director would submit his recommendations on the request of the agency to the Merit System Council with any objection or suggested modification to the agencies' proposal being submitted to the agency and to the Council. Considerations of establishment of classification and assignment of pay ranges were made at public meetings of the Council. Assignment of positions to appropriate classes was made by the agency with approval of the Merit System Director.[2] Subsequent to the passage of that law a classification and pay study was conducted by the Public Service Administration Commission. This coverage included approximately 1O,OOO employees of the state. Coverage under the merit system classification plan increased to approximately 22,OOO positions by

Figure I
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND REHABILITATIVE SERVICES POSITION ACQUISITION FLOW — CHART


GOVERNOR
LEGISLATURE
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND REHABILITATIVE SERVICES
DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATION
DIVISION OF PERSONNEL
DIVISION OF BUDGETING
(1)
Desired New Position
NORMAL
Division
Inst. or lower Unit
(§216.023 F.S.)
(2)
Legislative Budget Request
(§216.151 F.S.)
(3)
Governors Budget Recommendation
(§216.162 F.S.)
(4)
Appropriation Bill
(1A)
Desired New Position
Emergency
Division
Inst. or lower Unit
(§216.262 F.S.)
Denied
(5)
Authorized New Position
Division
Inst. or lower Unit
(6)
Position Approved for Classification
(§216.251 F.S.)
(7)
Position Classified
(22A-1.03*)
(8)
Position Established
(22A-1.06*)
(§216.181 F.S.)
(9)
Vacant New Position
Division
Inst. or lower Unit
(22A-7.03*)
*Personnel Rules and Regulations

(1) LOWER UNIT INITIATES A REQUEST FOR NEW POSITION IN NORMAL MANNER THRU DIVISION TO DHRS FOR INCLUSION IN THE ANNUAL BUDGET REQUEST FORWARDED TO DIVISION OF PLANNING AND BUDGETING, DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATION.

(1A) LOWER UNIT INITIATES AN EMERGENCY REQUEST FOR NEW POSITION THRU DIVISION TO DHRS FOR FORWARDING DIRECTLY TO DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATION FOR APPROVAL OR DISAPPROVAL AND PROCESSING AS SET FORTH IN 6, 7 AND 8 BELOW.**

(2) DIVISION OF PLANNING AND BUDGETING, DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATION REVIEWS REQUEST AND IF APPROVED, INCLUDES IN LEGISLATIVE BUDGET REQUEST FORWARDED TO GOVERNOR.

(3) GOVERNOR REVIEWS REQUEST AND IF APPROVED IS INCLUDED IN BUDGET RECOMMENDATIONS TO LEGISLATURE.

(4) LEGISLATURE INCLUDES IN APPROPRIATION BILL IF IT APPROVES THE REQUEST FOR NEW POSITION.

(5) THE NEW POSITION IS AUTHORIZED AND THE LOWER UNIT NOW FORWARDS THRU CHANNELS POSITION QUESTIONNAIRES AND OTHER INFORMATION TO ATTEMPT TO ESTABLISH AND CLASSIFY THE POSITION AUTHORIZED BY THE LEGISLATURE.

(6) DIVISION OF PLANNING AND BUDGETING, DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATION DETERMINES WHETHER THE POSITION CAN BE ESTABLISHED AND FORWARDS TO THE DIVISION OF PERSONNEL, DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATION TO CLASSIFY THE POSITION.

(7) DIVISION OF PERSONNEL CLASSIFIES AND RETURNS TO THE DIVISION OF PLANNING AND BUDGETING.

(8) DIVISION OF PLANNING AND BUDGETING NOW ESTABLISHES THE CLASSIFIED POSITION AND ADVISES DHRS.

(9) DHRS ADVISES LOWER UNIT THRU CHANNELS THAT THE POSITION IS NOW AUTHORIZED, CLASSIFIED AND ESTABLISHED AND THEY MAY NOW FILL THE POSITION WITH AN EMPLOYEE.

1967. While other agencies not under the merit system may have developed classification plans as well as pay plans, the allocation of positions under those plans was not reviewed by persons outside the individual agency.

As a result of continuous problems in connection with personnel operation related to disparities among personnel practices, including classification and pay, the legislature appropriated funds in the 1965 session for a classification and pay survey of the state agencies not covered by the merit system. Following this survey and subsequent recommendations by the Cabinet and interested legislators, the state career service was established by the 1967 legislature. This was the first time that most positions of the various agencies of state government were to be reviewed by a body outside the agency in which a position was located. Allocation of the level of position and assignment of pay ranges were made by the central personnel agency.

Current Procedure for Obtaining Authorization and Establishment of Positions

Under provisions of Florida Statutes 110 the Department of Administration, Division of Personnel, has established Personnel Rules and Regulations with detailed delineation for the establishment of a uniform classification plan to consist of: all approved classes of positions, class specifications of approved classes of positions, the allocation of each position to its proper class and the rules and regulations governing administration of the classification plan. This provision, therefore, restricts the filling of a position even though such a position may be authorized specifically by the legislature in the Appropriations Act.

Authorization of positions within the State of Florida is obtained by two sources: the legislature in its normal course of business or on an emergency basis through the Administration Commission. Procedure for obtaining clearance for authorization of a position under normal legislative process is outlined in the Position Acquisition Flow Chart (Figure 1).

If a unit of a Department wishes to request establishment of a new position, then justification for the establishment of such a position must first be submitted to the Division for consideration for placing that item in its recommended legislative budget. The position is then included in the requested legislative budget and forwarded to the Department for consideration. If the requested new position falls in the category of items that can be included in a legislative requesting budget, it is forwarded to the Department of Administration Budgeting Division for its review. The Department of Administration subsequently makes its recommendations to the Governor with regard to the submittal of the material forwarded by the various departments. If the Governor is in agreement with these recommendations, then his recommendations are submitted to the legislature as the recommended budget for the upcoming fiscal year. If the position is then approved by the legislature as being appropriate, funding for such a position is included in the Appropriations Act. After inclusion in the Appropriations Act the unit of the Division is advised and a position questionnaire is completed in accordance with the classification rules and forwarded through the Division to the Department. If the Department feels that the position questionnaire is completed appropriately, it is forwarded to the budget office for further clearance. Upon release by the budget office the position questionnaire is submitted to the Division of Personnel for classification action. The Classification Bureau of the Division of Personnel allocates the position to an appropriate class within the classification plan or establishes a new class. The position questionnaire is then forwarded through the Division which notifies the unit of both authorization and establishment of the position.

The same general procedure is followed when seeking the establishment of a position on an emergency basis or for grants that are forthcoming subsequent to the Appropriations Act or after submittal of the legislative requesting budget. In such cases the request for the new position must be submitted, with necessary documentation and forms, to the Division of Budgeting and if approved by the Department of Administration, is submitted to the Administration Commission for approval. The job questionnaire is submitted along with the justification for the establishment of a new position.

Request for reclassification of positions usually originates in units of the Divisions and is processed through the Department to the Division of Personnel. Adding new positions when a position is being deleted is also processed in the same manner directly to the Division of Personnel under considerable restrictions.

Classification Difficulties

Studies conducted as a result of (1) the 1953 legislative appropriation for review of classification matters, (2) the Public Service Administration Classification and Pay Study conducted in 1956 at the beginning of the establishment of the expanded merit system program, and (3) the Cresap, McCormick and Paget study conducted in 1966, clearly indicate the necessity of an overviewing authority with regard to the classification of positions. The central personnel agency is the logical location for such overview. Classification of positions has such a profound effect on the whole personnel management system as it relates to individual personnel processes that its proper application is of utmost importance. The placing of the complete responsibility for classification of positions in the central agency has serious shortcomings and generates a detrimental effect.

As has been observed in the past, an interesting type of "gamesmanship" takes place when the central personnel agency makes all the decisions with regard to the classification of positions causing a challenge to line management with the result that line management pushes for allocation and reclassification of positions which they might not approve if held accountable for the decision.[3] Management sometimes takes the attitude of "go ahead and send in the position questionnaire; we know it's not right, but since we don't have sufficient control to see that equity of positions is maintained, let's get as many positions approved as possible." With this "gamesmanship", management may not be careful in seeing that all the facts about a particular job are developed; justification more likely to be favorable to management's case is included and it is left to the central personnel agency to find the contradictory information. Operational personnel staff are caught up in this procedure.

The traditional classification method involving the development of class specifications is one of the reasons for this continual controversy. Class specifications as generally written are not adequate for understanding of the various allocation factors of a particular position. Commonly, the writing of class specifications has placed emphasis on their prospective use as an overall description of the positions in a class. This emphasis made the specifications too broad and required a more detailed review of duty operations.[4] Such a measuring stick "must be based on a thorough knowledge of the jobs in the organization so that all work elements will be included and difficulties and responsibilities will be clearly distinguished."[5] Such a requirement places an impossible task on a central personnel agency unless the staff is very large and includes a wide variety of professionals. The traditional class specification does not define allocation information or classification standards adequately so that proper evaluation of duties relegated to the various levels cannot be expected of even high level management, much less supervisory personnel. Without adequate written factors for allocation of positions, central personnel staff use factors and terms which are generally not known to line management and can lead to misunderstandings.

In the human service area position allocation becomes even more difficult. If changing client behavior is essential for a position and through counseling, an employee is able to favorably change a client's behavior, how do you differentiate between this employee and one in the same position less able to change behavior patterns? The historical classification reaction to this dilemma is that the situation is not a classification matter but a matter of performance in the job. This reaction is not sufficient. The teaching profession has wrestled with this problem for years. A classroom teacher with a Master's degree does not necessarily perform a better teaching job than a

B.A. teacher; indeed, he may not perform as well as a person without a degree at all, but with all other things equal he will do a better job of getting children in his classroom to learn. The allocation of positions in the human service area requires an assessment of the behavioral elements inherent in the duties performed by the particular individual who occupies the position. "It is unrealistic to disassociate the duties of the position from the individual who functions in that particular capacity."[6]

Additional problems arise with the rapidly expanding demand for new and improved services in the human service area so that the central personnel office, which is staffed for a more "regular" type of operation, cannot be sufficiently prepared to prevent delays in classification matters.

Involving Management

While it may have been desirable to establish the "usual" procedure and controls at the outset of the career service system, due to the disparity of classification programs in the various agencies, a new system is needed which would utilize the basic philosophies of position classification in conjunction with the more up to date needs of human service agencies operations. As an initial step towards a conceptual breakthrough, we need to change our methodology with regard to describing and evaluating the highly individualized positions included in human service agencies.

> "For example, such positions should not be conceived of as 'jobs' with fixed dimensions and constraints. This approach, as reflected in present position classification concepts, suffices for the more definitive, physical-type jobs where specific, observable tasks are assigned and are uniformly performed in a standardized fashion.
>
> Positions which do not fit this mold, however, require a different approach. For these positions, the sum of the total position is greater than the sum of its individual tasks. Thus, we need to use 'position synthesis' rather than 'job analysis' to understand how the position and its particular incumbent relate in a multi-faceted organizational environment. The various activities engaged in by the individual should be assessed as interrelated to and interacting with the entire organization and its milieu."[7]

The issue of who should do the classifying needs to be given attention. "The time has come to slough off the preoccupation with exclusive decision making by specialists in classification."[8] Initial heavy involvement in the development of position evaluation standards and specifications including the allocation of individual jobs by individual program executives or a committee of executives is needed. "It is surprising how infectious responsibility is."[9] Supervisors who really feel responsible for a rational position classification and who understand the consequences of misalignment become remarkably conservative in their judgment.

The present personnel literature clearly indicates that the time honored independent third party classifier is being subjected to agonizing reappraisal with a change to a greater assumption of classification responsibilities by operating management which results in a better job of position classification. Position classification surveys have shown that the number of misclassified positions actually has been reduced when position allocation authority is decentralized. "The surveys conducted between 1958 and 1960 show that 3.7% of the total positions surveyed were misclassified. The surveys of 1960-62 after delegation of authority was instituted in the California system show that only 1.7% of the total positions were misclassified."[10]

More definitive classification standards must be developed. The composition of clear and useful standards calls for the exercise of analytical ability in order to express job distinctions with exactness. It also requires a good understanding of occupational subject matter, functions and activities involved in a position being described in a given class or series and a thorough appreciation of the basis upon which positions are classified as well as the problems inherent in classification standards.[11] Determination of such standards must involve management personnel in specialized areas. It is difficult for classification staff of any size to develop classification factors to differentiate the various levels of tasks more effectively than persons in a particular profession. Involvement of persons in particular fields and management as well as persons familiar with the overall classification techniques must be combined to develop such adequate standards.

If management is to be involved in allocation and included in the classification process, a major effort in training is needed from agency personnel staff to line management. Improved position classifications would result from the central personnel agency spending a considerable amount of its classification staff energies in developing and maintaining such a program.

The problem of reflecting behavioral change skills in position allocations requires attention to the broader concept of career ladders and the related man-in-job concepts. The ability to have an effect on human behavior must be recognized without necessarily moving to a "high level position." Career ladders that require persons to change positions to become supervisors or require "gamesmanship" to indicate involvement in only difficult counseling cases are not sufficient to meet the needs of human service agencies.

Personnel issues, like the substantive service programs, are management responsibilities. Management cannot abdicate its responsibility for personnel management which is as important as carrying out public policy. Personnel management must be accomplished while adhering to requirements of personnel rules, regulations or law. Classification of positions has such a profound effect upon the entire personnel operation that administrators must be involved in the responsibility for that function. In human service agencies it is crucial!

NOTES

[1] Florida Merit System, *History of the Merit System in Florida*, July, 1958.

[2] *Rules of the Florida Merit System*, as filed with the Secretary of State, July, 1962.

[3] R. Permin Everett and T. Williams Wade, "Line Management's Participation in Classification Decisions," *Public Personnel Review* (January, 1963), p. 30.

[4] Civil Service Assembly of the U.S. and Canada, *Position Classification in the Public Service* (Chicago, Illinois: Public Personnel Association, 1941, reprinted 1970), p. 248.

[5] U.S. Department of Labor, Employment Service Occupational Analysis Branch, *Industrial Job Evaluation Systems* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, October, 1947), p. 248.

[6] Jay F. Atwood, "Position Synthesis: A Behavioral Approach to Position Classification," *Public Personnel Review* (April, 1971), p. 79.

[7] *Ibid.*, pp. 80-81.

[8] O. Glenn Stahl, *A Fresh Appraisal of Basic Personnel Functions* (Chicago, Illinois: Public Personnel Association, Personnel Report 654, 1964), p. 7.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 8

[10] John F. Fisher, *Decentralizing Position Classification* (Chicago, Illinois: Public Personnel Association, Personnel Report 642, 1964), p. 3.

[11] U.S. Civil Service Commission, *Basic Training Course in Position Classification, Part 3 — Administration and Operations* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Civil Service Commission, March, 1961), p. 45.

PART IV

STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Selected Staff Development Issues In Florida Human Service Agencies

Susan Yelton

Rapid changes in the delivery of human services will require equally dramatic changes in worker functioning. This is an age of rapidly changing technology, frequent changes in programs and procedures, accelerating career aspirations of workers and the emergence of new occupational types.[1] New demands on agency staff development programs have been created by these changes and there is a need to analyze these programs as they relate to the efficiency and effectiveness of the delivery of human services in Florida. Several Divisions of the Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services including the Division of Family Services, the Division of Youth Services, the Division of Mental Retardation, and the Division of Mental Health were identified as part of a preliminary survey of staff development programming.

As human service agencies have been encouraged by social legislation,

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both federal and state, to serve a broader community, their programs have undergone drastic changes. Traditionally, their activities were directed towards treatment and maintenance whereas today they are committed to a broader service goal. Employees of human service agencies are reaching out to develop community resources, promote positive social functioning, and reach people with problems before their situation becomes a crisis.

In order to meet the increased demand for services, human service agencies have also had to plan for the maximization of all resources, including manpower. In doing so, new types of employees have appeared on the scene. Former recipients of services and technical workers trained in new programs developed by community colleges have joined the existing work force. The combined effect of the emergence of new occupational types, accelerating career aspirations of workers and the change in service delivery programs has resulted in an increased demand for effective staff development programs.

In Florida, in addition to the changes initiated by social legislation, the recent reorganization of state government has effected the delivery of social services. In an attempt to more efficiently and effectively coordinate social service programs, seven divisions which were once autonomous now report directly to the Secretary of the newly formed Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services. This new administrative pattern seems to have heightened the awareness of the essential nature of staff development programs, their pervasive influence on the quality of agency services, and their place in the administrative structure. Current staff development activities reflect the need for greater attention to statewide planning, addressing such issues as:

1. Divisional staff development responsibilities beyond program orientation,
2. Centralized (state) vs. decentralized (region) staff development programming,
3. Administrative commitment of resources to staff development.
4. Administrative relationships between personnel functions and staff development functions,
5. Seeking a balance between staff development programming for direct service workers and middle management personnel,
6. Building a training facility vs. utilizing existing community colleges and universities,
7. Departmental staff development responsibilities to complement Divisional efforts.

The following discussion highlights some of the staff development issues in four of the seven Divisions of the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services.

Division of Family Services

"The 1962 provision for increased federal sharing in the cost of training public welfare personnel recognized (1) that it is only through staff that the services can be provided and (2) that there is a direct relationship between the nature of the task and the skill required for successful performance."[2] The Social Security amendments of 1962 and 1967 embodied a long term goal for staff development programs in public welfare agencies. The legislation set July 1, 1967 as the date by which State Public Welfare Agencies must have not only a staff development director, but also sufficient training personnel to provide organized training for all levels of staff.[3] Consequently, this kind of national impetus has resulted in a comprehensive staff development effort in the Florida Division of Family Services. Although not fully developed as yet, this Division has made strong agency commitment to staff development programming.

Organizationally, the Division of Family Services is developing a coordinated staff development program through a Bureau of Staff Development. The Bureau lists the following priorities for the year 1971-72 to be implemented at the state, regional and local levels:

1. Development and implementation of an organized comprehensive orientation program for all levels of staff throughout the state.
2. Development and implementation of an in-service training program for all staff throughout the state after determining needs of staff for continuing training.
3. Primary responsibility for the educational leave program for staff including development of criteria for selection, joint evaluation of staffing needs with appropriate Bureaus, Districts and other Divisions of the Department.
4. Cooperative training projects with schools of higher education including training grants to strengthen undergraduate and graduate curriculum in anticipation of agency manpower needs. (It is anticipated that community colleges will be included.)
5. Identification of special training needs and providing opportunities to meet these needs through special courses, seminars, and institutes that are agency or community based.
6. Provide consultation and leadership in the development of job related training programs that integrate feasibly with regular job responsibilities.

7. Cooperative training projects with other agencies and institutions.
8. Supportive services for above responsibilities including selection and distribution of reading material to staff, preparation of bibliographies, maintaining the State Office Library, assistance in establishing and using multiple media as an effective teaching tool, testing and using other technological tools such as the computer to facilitate planning.[4]

Administratively, the Bureau of Staff Development is headed by a Bureau Chief who reports directly to the Division Director. Her supportive staff includes State Consultants, an Assistance Payments Specialist, and training coordinators assigned to eleven regions in the state on a full-time basis. At the present time only four of the eleven regions have training coordinators assigned to them on a full-time basis. The remaining seven have either a part-time coordinator or none at all. The movement towards regional representatives is still in a developmental stage as indicated by statewide coverage. It was designed as an effort to meet the individual needs of each region with the goal of eventually making the staff development representative a part of the administration of each region.

The Division of Family Services views an orientation to the agency and various forms of continued in-service training as top priority in a comprehensive staff development program. Orientation is considered the first step in preparing an employee to function effectively within a system. An orientation program to be inclusive and effective should include material on the agency's programs and operating procedures, knowledge and skill training, specific knowledge relating to the field of practice, specialized knowledge about specific client groups, and attitudinal development. This type of approach to orientation takes on added significance when viewed in light of the educational background of the Division of Family Services employees. As of May 1971, 172 of its employees had less than a four year college degree. Of the 2625 with at least a four year degree, slightly more than 73% did not major in social work/sociology yet they were hired to fill social work positions.

Although the Bureau of Staff Development is beginning to exercise more leadership in the area of orientation programs for new employees, these programs are still the administrative responsibility of each region. While this provides flexibility to accommodate unique regional training needs, it also can hamper the development of a comprehensive statewide program. The Division is faced with a shortage of staff development personnel, the need for more data to plan programs, and frequent changes in service programs and procedures which interfere with their long-range planning efforts. The resolution of these issues will allow the Division to move beyond orientation training programs to manpower development programming. Based on current program directions career mobility will continue to be dependent upon academic training rather than advancement through in-service training.

Division of Youth Services

As a result of state legislation which became effective October 1, 1971, the Division of Youth Services is now responsible for the provision of juvenile court intake and probation services. It is anticipated that the expansion of the Division's services will eventually result in an increase in staff from 1200 employees to 2600.[5] The new employees, the majority of which were formerly paid by the county in which they worked, will now be responsible to the Chief of the Bureau of Field Services. The Bureau is one of four under the Division Director, with other services provided through the Bureaus for Community Services, Training Schools, and Group Treatment. The Bureau of Group Treatment operates a Staff Development Center in Tallahassee. The Center, which began operation September, 1971 as a result of an LEAA grant, services primarily group treatment personnel, primarily focusing training in guided group interaction as a method of treatment. Although staff at all levels, including the superintendents of the training schools, will eventually be able to attend a two week session at the Center, the maximum number of employees which could be trained at the Center during a year is 300. Due to the specialized nature of the training, the number of employees served, and the organizational relationship it has to the Division, the Center cannot be considered a comprehensive staff development program for all Youth Services personnel.

On their own initiative, the training schools have developed their own orientation and in-service training programs. Although the superintendents report directly to the Bureau Chief of Training Schools there is a need for coordination with the Bureau to develop staff development programming. Some training schools, such as Dozier, coordinate their staff development programs with junior colleges and the Office of Continuing Education at Florida State University. However, this pattern only occurs when a supervisor or administrator has the initiative to explore resources.

The individual bureau approach to staff development also holds true for the Bureaus of Training Schools and Field Services. However the Division of Youth Services is moving in the direction of a divisional staff development program which parallels other functions and is an integral part of overall administration.*

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*Since the data for this report was gathered, the Division of Youth Services has established a Bureau of Staff Development.

For those employees who want to increase their managerial and supervisory skills, the Division of Youth Services utilizes the program offered by the Department of Administration. Selected Division of Youth Services staff are given leave time to attend the workshops which are held periodically at different locales throughout the state. Some workshops are designed for the needs of a particular Division while others are designed to be sufficiently broad in content so that any Division can benefit from the program. Although the process of selecting staff for training does not currently enable a non-supervisor to gain training which would allow him to move up a career ladder, the leave time policy is a recognition by the agency that managerial skills are important to an effective service delivery program.

Division of Mental Retardation

Anticipating the receipt of a great deal of Title IVA and XVI monies, the Division of Mental Retardation is undergoing organizational changes to implement a program which would expand their services into every community. The anticipated federal funds represent a significant increase in the Division's budget and will enable the Division to hire 12OO new employees.[6] In order to train their employees to achieve the agency's goals, the Division recognizes a need for an organizational structure which would facilitate the coordination of the staff development programs for employees in all program areas.

In order to accomplish this goal, the Division has recently combined the functions of personnel and staff development into one organizational structure. The Personnel Director is now responsible for the supervision of the state staff development program, however special project funds have been secured to employ a training specialist.

From the perspective of the Division, current staff development programs at the institutions are viewed as inadequate because a lack of resources precludes extensive programming. The content of these programs is primarily an orientation to the agency and the job function. However, this approach is beginning to change.

The Sunland Centers at Tallahassee and Gainesville have contracted with the Department of Labor to provide a program in academic education, job-related skill training, and counseling. For those employees with less than a high school education, this program prepares them to take the State Personnel Board "Educational Attainment Comparison Test," which can be used by employees for state career advancement within the institutions and other state agencies. The Sunland Center at Miami has contracted with the University of Miami to train paraprofessionals in job related skills.[7] Since the program was very successful, it appears that the Division will continue to look towards university support for some of their in-service training activities.

When the Division of Mental Retardation began to change their organizational structure to include both an institutional program as well as a community service program, the regional service center plan was developed. The designated regions conform with the regional structure of the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services. The reorganization has implications for an improved staff development program since every region will have a Director of Staff Development. He or she will report to the Regional Services Director. In regions which have an institution, the Regional Director of Staff Development will not only be responsible for the orientation and in-service training programs of the community representatives, but also the staff at the institutions.

The Division of Mental Retardation is still in a developmental stage of reorganizing its organizational structure and delivery of social services. However, the proposed changes imply a considerable improvement in the content of their staff development programs as well as the coverage.

Division of Mental Health

Until recently, the Division of Mental Health operated primarily as the administrative support for community and institutional mental health programs. In the past the institutions were almost autonomous, however, this pattern is changing. The superintendents of the mental health hospitals are still considered deputies to the Director of Mental Health, but they are now also responsible to a community advisory board. The board members were selected on the basis of the contribution they would be able to make toward the improvement of mental health services.

Since the institutions provide the majority of direct services offered by the Division, they have recognized a need to train staff. Recently the largest mental health institution in Florida, located at Chattahoochee, has begun an innovative manpower utilization program linked with Florida State University. Using a team approach and differential use of manpower, the hospital has staffed a behavior modification unit. The paraprofessionals included in the program, as well as all employees hired by the institution, undergo a comprehensive orientation program. Those in the behavior modification unit also regularly attend in-service training programs to improve their skills. These sessions include all team members of the unit so that program implementation is uniform.

The hospital at Hollywood will eventually add a Director of Research and Training who could link the training of employees with the educational programs at the University of Miami, Broward Community College and

Miami-Dade Community College. It is anticipated that the linkage would enable employees to improve skills by attending workshops as well as work toward academic degrees.

The linkages with community colleges and universities seem to be the approach the institutions have used extensively to train, retrain, and improve their employees' skills. This trend will continue to broaden as the Division expands its staff development functions. At the present time the program areas have initiated staff development activities to fit their individual needs. With other high priority service projects and limited funds, the institutions have only been able to provide orientation for employees and sporadic in-service training.

However, this should change when the Florida Institute for Training and Research in Mental Health at Tampa opens in 1973. A major part of the Institute's function will be a staff development program for all agency programs. Consequently, the Division level function of coordinating staff development programs of the community and institutional mental health programs will emanate from Tampa. This innovative approach to staff development will include: (1) Training mental health personnel in staff development techniques; (2) Providing short term postgraduate education programs for those employees who need to update their skills in order to work more effectively with their job function; (3) Training programs for mental health personnel who cannot find appropriate educational training with the state, such as nursing home operations; (4) Workshops for those employees who wish to improve their skills; (5) Orientation and training of community mental health program personnel; and (6) Multi-university and multi-community college affiliations in order to provide in-service training and advanced academic degrees for the personnel who do not live in the Tampa area.

Since the Institute will have both a training and research component, the Division will have an opportunity to constantly evaluate its staff development programs. This will be just one of many programs at the Institute (See Appendix). However, the organizational and programmatic approach taken in the Division of Mental Health could serve as a model for future staff development programs.

A Proposal for Planning

In evaluating an agency's staff development program we must first ask the question, "What is staff development?" It is more than a haphazard effort to orient staff to a job function or the mere establishment of an organizational structure which implements training programs for staff. All agencies invest some time and money in the training and development of staff but few have examined their efforts in relation to the total agency system. As Fine notes, "All activities within an agency are part of a single system, and their total functioning determines agency performance".[8]

Effective achievement of agency goals necessitates that staff development programs be planned as a total agency strategy with administrative support of staff development as a program responsibility which parallels other agency functions. Effectiveness of staff development for service delivery depends not only on the rationality and reasonableness of allocation of funds and other resources, but also on the development of policy and procedures that promote both effective delivery of services and efficient functioning of all the human components in the system.[9]

A staff development program has the responsibility for the overall training of all staff including the induction of new workers, orientation of staff assuming new positions, and planning for special groups of staff when modification or creation of new programs indicates special training needs. In addition, it is charged with the responsibility of defining expected learning stages for staff with differing assignments and at various levels. This approach to staff development necessitates an agency-wide strategy which should have long-range benefit in the identification of core skills flowing from the goals of the agency.[10] Therefore, agency staff development operations should be part of the administrative hierarchy and involved in decision-making at the highest level.

* * * * * * *

The staff development programs of the four Divisions described represent a selective survey of current efforts. The activities of the agencies are primarily oriented to training employees for specific programs. This approach has limitations in an age of rapidly changing programs and technology.

Staff development planning strategies are needed to achieve an optimum match between workers' skills and particularized requirements of the work to be done to achieve the agency goals. The options available to agencies to develop a plan would vary depending upon the resources available and the agency's goals. However, it is assumed that after the agency analyzed its staff development needs in terms of (1) specific service activities, (2) occupational types, (3) specific skills required by particular service delivery needs, and (4) organizational structure of the agency, it would then plan activities which would include orientation to agency, program clientele, specific skill and content training, general education, and retraining activities in the life cycle of the employee. This approach to staff development is dependent upon administrative support of the program, adequate time for the planning staff to assemble all relevant data including training materials and program staff expectations and the identification of research methods to evaluate staff development programs."

For most agencies this proposal is unattainable given their present organization and available resources. They are faced with a shortage of staff development personnel, lack of relevant data to plan programs, and frequent changes in programs and procedures which interfere with long-range staff development planning. For the most part, conferences, workshops, and institutes have been the primary procedures for providing educational opportunities for staff beyond the point of orientation. The major implication of this survey of four Divisions within the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services is the need for educational technical assistance to enable all Divisions to develop an effective agency-wide strategy for staff development programming.

In addition, there is a need for a departmental policy and program on training and employment. Departmental staff development planning could include the design of educational leave programs for all types of human service personnel, the implementation of an employment and advancement preference program for personnel trained at departmental expense, and a legislative program to seek state funds for Divisional staff development programs which have traditionally operated largely on the basis of federal funding.

NOTES

[illegible]an Szaloczi Fine, "Some Issues in Manpower Development Program Planning," *Working Papers No. 1, National Study of Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Workers, Work and Organizational Contexts* (Washington, D. C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social and Rehabilitation Service, May 1971), p. 34.

[2] Eleanor K. Taylor, Eulene Hawkins, and Hilda P. Tebow, *Administrative Approaches to Staff Development in Public Welfare Agencies* (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social and Rehabilitation Service, 1968).

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 19.

[4] Florida Division of Family Services, Bureau of Staff Development, *Manual Material*, 1971.

[5] Conversation with Mr. William Morse, Director of Personnel for the Florida Division of Youth Services, Tallahassee, Florida, September 2, 1971.

[6] Conversation with Mr. Anthony Mixon, Director of Personnel for the Florida Division of Mental Retardation, Tallahassee, Florida, October 12, 1971.

[7] Arnold D. Cortazzo, Louise M. Bradtke, William T. Kirkpatrick, Jr., and Katherine P. Rosenblatt, "Innovations to Improve Care in an Institution for the Mentally Retarded," *Children*, 18 (July-August, 1971), pp. 149-154.

[8] Fine, *Op. Cit.*, p. 32.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 31.

[10] Fine, *Op. Cit.*, p. 32.

[11] *Ibid.*, pp. 37-39 and p. 45.

APPENDIX

THE FLORIDA INSTITUTE AT TAMPA
For Training and Research
In Mental Health*

The Florida Institute at Tampa is a new mental health facility in every respect. It will bring together men and women of national eminence in their professional fields and allow a fresh approach to the problems of training, applied research, prevention and service delivery. New mental health concepts, as well as new manpower, must be developed if Florida is to meet its mental health needs, thus this Institute becomes a necessary component of a comprehensive mental health program for the state.

I. PHYSICAL DESCRIPTION

The Institute is located on 41 acres of land at the northwest corner of the University of South Florida, Tampa. This is immediately north of the future medical school and adjacent to the V.A. Hospital and the Community Hospital of Tampa. The major building of the Tampa Institute is a two story complex of ten thirty-bed Patient Living Units, joined by a central core of offices and other facilities for training and for evaluation research. In addition, the first phase of construction will include a Service Building and a Dietary Facility. Additional buildings to permanently house administration and provide for activity therapy, outpatient and daycare functions, and continuing education programs are scheduled in phase II construction of the Institute. During phase III construction a children's facility will be built.

The architectural firms of Fletcher and Valenti of Tampa and William

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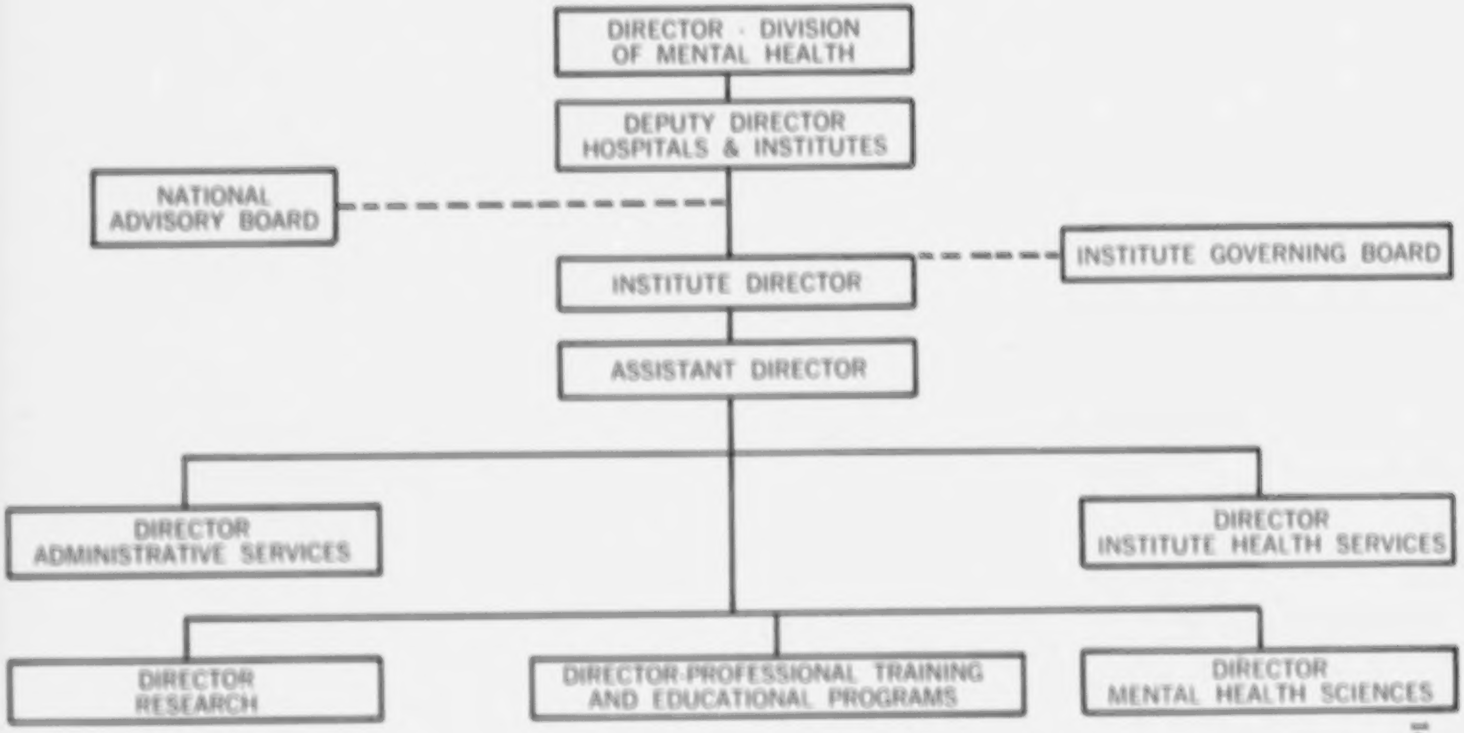
*To be operated by the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services, Division of Mental Health under the overall direction of Dr. W. D. Rogers. See organization chart on next page.

FLORIDA INSTITUTE AT TAMPA


DIRECTOR - DIVISION OF MENTAL HEALTH
DEPUTY DIRECTOR HOSPITALS & INSTITUTES
NATIONAL ADVISORY BOARD
INSTITUTE DIRECTOR
INSTITUTE GOVERNING BOARD
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR
DIRECTOR ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES
DIRECTOR INSTITUTE HEALTH SERVICES
DIRECTOR RESEARCH
DIRECTOR-PROFESSIONAL TRAINING AND EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS
DIRECTOR MENTAL HEALTH SCIENCES

Faust of Daytona Beach have focused attention on the completion of working drawings for phase I; these should be completed by January, 1972 allowing construction to begin early in 1972. They have provided an exterior architectural style that blends with other facilities on the University of South Florida campus.

When completed the physical structure of the Institute will include service areas for outpatients, daycare patients, 300 inpatients and a childrens treatment program. Also included will be facilities for corrective and activities therapies.

The service components are arranged to facilitate the primary mission of the Institute: the training of mental health manpower. They adjoin the central educational complex which provides seminar rooms, offices for trainees and Institute personnel engaged in training and a variety of educational workshop rooms. To augment its internal training programs as well as its community educational role the Institute includes an auditorium and a community consultation area. Adequate space is provided for research and data processing since a program of applied and evaluative research is being developed as an integral part of service and training.

II. GENERAL PROGRAMS

The administrative philosophy of the Institute includes a proposed personnel system designed to maximize innovation, flexibility and allow the Institute program and projects to accommodate to future changes and needs. The most important single aspect of the plan is the utilization of a project orientation. Projects will evolve within each patient-living-unit and in other non-inpatient programs such as an environmental design project, a statewide primary prevention project, and a drug dependence project (linked with the Bureau of Alcoholic Rehabilitation). The inpatient unit projects will include demonstrating treatment approaches — re-education methods, behavioral therapies, encounter and related techniques, psycho-pharmacology, family therapy, milieu therapy. Two unit projects are designated by age groups; the gerontology project and the youth-young adult project. An additional project will demonstrate a community mental health or a comprehensive health approach. The childrens facility project orientation will include training mental health professionals in the skills of developing child oriented treatment programs at the community and family levels.

The projects will be organized within a Department of Mental Health Sciences and the project leaders will be responsible to the Department's Director. A project committee will monitor all the projects of the Institute. All projects are time-limited and will be evaluated with project leaders held accountable during major annual reviews of their pre-selected goals. At the predetermined time for project completion (usually several years) a project will either be replaced with a program more relevant to state mental health needs or, if still relevant, be renewed.

The project organization and the personnel system to be described will facilitate grant funding from sources outside the state such as federal agencies and private foundations. Every attempt will be made to utilize these sources in the operation of many of the Institute's programs.

III. PERSONNEL SYSTEM

The personnel structure of the Institute utilizes a combination of Career Service and proposed Research and Instruction positions to assemble a group of recognized authorities in their respective fields. Key positions will have easy interchange capacity with their counterpart positions at Universities and Colleges within the state. This will allow existing university faculty to utilize the Institute as a field training station that augments and facilitates projects that may have begun on campus but needed an applied setting for full development. The proposed personnel system will allow for flexibility in hiring and transfer practices that are necessary for a program geared to innovative change.

It is seen as undesirable for the Institute to have specific people permanently assigned to many of the key research, training and administrative positions. Flexibility, change, exchange, easy ingress and egress are essential for permanent but viable Institute programs. To further insure viability with sound direction, two Boards are proposed: A National Advisory Board composed of eminent innovators in the national mental health scene — convened at least annually to review the progress and plans of the Institute. The second, an Institute Governing Board to whom the Director of the Institute is partially responsible. This Board would draw its membership from community programs, academic departments, mental health associations and others who are in a position to reflect the state's needs and judge the Institute's adequacy in meeting those needs.

IV. TRAINING PROGRAMS

The intent of the training programs of the Institute is to help the state meet its mental health manpower needs. In doing this, it will focus on the training of mental health personnel who are already employed in the state's hospitals, centers and clinics and on the training of future practitioners in the mental health specialties *whose intent is to work in Florida.* To accomplish its training tasks, there will be multi-University and multi-Junior College affiliations. These academic affiliations will be coordinated through a Department of Professional Training and Education. The Institute will train mental health professionals in the established disciplines of psychiatry, psychology, social work, nursing, and the adjunctive therapies.

In addition, the Institute will be actively involved in training and employing paraprofessionals — mental health technicians, psychology and social work assistants, and physician assistants. There will be training programs for vocational rehabilitation counselors, one-stop center coordinators, psychiatric aides, nursing home operators, alcoholism and drug counselors, indigenous workers, and any other special field, degree or non-degree, that is involved and interested in caring for the mental health problems of Florida's people.

It is anticipated that new disciplines will be created and evaluated as to their effectiveness in meeting mental health needs. Their creation, training and evaluation would be done in conjunction with the academic programs developed on the various state campuses. Continuing educational programs for the already established professionals and paraprofessionals will take place in scheduled workshops utilizing auditoriums and other training spaces of the Institute. The Institute will be involved in retraining established professionals currently working in state hospitals, centers and clinics who wish to learn the newer and more innovative mental health approaches. This training will not be limited to the programs of the Division of Mental Health but will include any Division of the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services where the Institute's training or applied research can be of help in improving their programs.

The latest in training aids will be used including closed circuit television and computer assisted instruction for both trainees and patient-residents. Innovative data processing systems involving patient records and intra-Institute information exchange will also aid the training process. Trainees at all levels will have opportunities to be exposed to the greatest variety of mental health professionals and procedures. A close affiliation is proposed between the Institute and the University of South Florida's Division of Educational Resources and its media center.

V. RESEARCH PROGRAMS

The research programs of the Institute will be of an applied nature resting primarily in evaluation of the approaches of the various projects and their efficiency in treating different kinds of problems. For example, evaluation programs will be designed to determine what kinds of treatment approaches are most effective with patients transferred to the Institute from state hospitals, utilizing approaches not currently available in the hospitals. Patients studied would include those with chronic disabilities, geriatric problems and adolescent psychopaths.

The development of the Institute coincides with the planned growth and development of the Jacksonville Data Center which will support it with data processing. Application of computerized methods of evaluation and control have first priority. All of the quantitative data reflecting Institute programs will be continuously "on line" and available. These include demographic and sociological data, clinical information including intake and evaluation results, psychological evaluations, treatment progress and even control of pharmacy stock. The applications will allow for accurate cost accounting of specific programs.

Intra-Institute research programs will include monitoring and assessing all statewide data collected on community and hospital mental health programs.

VI. SERVICE PROGRAMS

The major mission of the Institute, its training and research capability, evolves around the innovativeness of its service approach; a service design not currently present in any state or private facility in Florida. The service program is not meant to replace local facilities or functions but is meant to augment statewide service needs and to facilitate training of existing and new mental health manpower on a statewide basis.

The service programs, as indicated in the project descriptions, will be flexible by design, that is, if a particular approach is shown through evaluation research to be non-effective it can be readily replaced with a more promising program. Planning for this flexibility has resulted in the development of the administrative system organized on the time-limited, goal-oriented project basis that will require consistent evaluation and lead to program changes where necessary.

The initial treatment approach on each of the ten Patient Living Units has been preprogrammed by the Institute Planning Staff. Staffing on the units will utilize all mental health professionals according to their expertise with the functional orientation of the project or with particular age groups. Staffing will not, however, be on a conventional team basis on most units. Further, the existence of a Department of Health Services within the Institute will allow medical responsibility for all patients to rest with a physician while other aspects of patient management might rest with members of any mental health profession.

Specific plans regarding admission procedures will be developed after obtaining information from representatives of the Tampa - St. Petersburg - Clearwater geographic area, Community Mental Health Centers and Clinics throughout Florida, the State Hospitals, the Bureau of Alcoholic Rehabilitation and from private mental health practitioners. Additional input will be obtained from other Divisions of the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services.

The nature of the patient population of the Institute (i.e., Phase I: primarily inpatient; Phase II: outpatients and daycare patients; and Phase III: children) should reflect the major mental health problems of the people of Florida. Admissions for treatment will normally be prearranged. However, the Institute will also offer training in methods of handling emergency or crisis situations with increased capabilities in this area after completion of Phase II.

All admissions to the Institute regardless of referral source, such as private practitioners, center or clinics, state hospital transfers or other sources in the local geographic area, will undergo a comprehensive physical and mental evaluation *prior* to being admitted to a project unit. Facilitated by computerized methods, this evaluation will be done initially in a temporary area specifically designed for this purpose. A larger, more comprehensive evaluation area is planned for Phase II. At the time of discharge from treatment all patients will go through a portion of a similar evaluation. Data regarding the effectiveness of the various projects will be obtained by this method.

VII. PREVENTION PROGRAMS

Within a special statewide project the Institute will house and administer a program of Research and Demonstration in primary prevention. An office of primary prevention has now been established in the Division of Mental Health to begin planning for this special and important area. Included in primary prevention will be the exploration of measures taken to strengthen the host as well as the study of environmental factors related to the development of maladjustment. The prevention project is of special significance since the sister Florida Institute at Miami has been preprogrammed to become deeply committed to studying and programming in the area of preventing disabilities.

Curriculum Building For Agency Education

Michael J. Austin

As new service delivery systems are being designed for all areas of human services today, there is a growing need to realign the priorities of institutions of higher education with the priorities of human service agencies. From the perspective of a public welfare agency, there is a greater need today for assistance in retraining existing manpower as well as reconceptualizing client services. On the university campuses there is a growing need for redefining community relevance and a growing need to link educational philosophies with the future needs of human service practitioners in our human service industry. There has always been a healthy tension between campus and agency as each has tried to influence the other. While the campuses have been the focal point for generating new research and training new personnel, the agencies have been the focal point for service delivery change and the reconceptualization of client need.

There has been a growing recognition in recent years both on the campuses and in the agencies that both faculty members as well as agency staff development specialists are functioning in similar capacities. Both are

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involved in training. Both have a conceptualization of future worker and client needs. The primary differences lie in the fact that the campus based instructor must train students on the basis of many fields of practice in contrast to the agency trainer who has traditionally only been concerned with the needs and demands of his specific field of practice. As a result of these developments, universities are moving more in the direction of licensing for the profession future practitioners through the granting of degrees whether at the Associate, Baccalaureate, or Master's level. At the same time there is growing pressure from workers going through agency in-service training programs to certify completion. This certification pressure results from the worker's perception that specialized training should be rewarded through career advancement and mobility.

There is a point where the licensing function of the university and the certifying function of the agency can meet and this is in the expanding area of continuing education. The universities have only a limited understanding of the continuing education needs of agency personnel. Universities have traditionally provided continuing education programs which have been developed primarily on the basis of specific faculty expertise in contrast to specific agency personnel needs. At the same time, agencies have had difficulty in expressing and defining their specific personnel needs so that the universities might be involved in meeting such needs. *As a result, there is a growing need to analyze the staff development function in the human service industry in order to build a knowledge base and a technology base for the design and implementation of university continuing education programs.*

The definition of training needs in the agency as well as on the university campuses will be determined more and more by the evolution of new service delivery systems. The growing recognition of integrating and coordinating services in the broad human service field will require workers who are trained in agencies as well as on campuses, who can function as generalists in direct services and as specialists in managerial training capacities. In addition there is a growing need to improve the training of manpower involved in human service programs and in particular the opportunity for workers to improve their competencies. New approaches to training are needed. This involves not only specialized training programs but innovative curriculum design for both the campus and the field. The above mentioned issues related to in-service training and continuing education provide the context for identifying the need for staff development research and demonstration.

Primary to this research and demonstration strategy is the development of relevant applied research based on the current "state-of-the-art" in the theory and practice of human service delivery. The goal is the development of new knowledge for practical and effective solutions to the daily problems faced by practitioners, managers, and policy makers. As Jean Fine has noted,

> "the ultimate test of the effectiveness of applied research is the degree to which it enables the manager or worker to recognize correlates in his own experience and to use information and knowledge from the research to better manage his own work in order to fulfill more of its purposes. . . . Needless to say, no research is useful unless results are communicated and, furthermore, communicated in a form that is understandable to different potential users with different needs, who bring different experiences and understanding to the interchange with the researcher."[1]

Helping local and state human service agencies is the primary rationale for such a research strategy. This means "maximizing worker career goals while achieving a minimum of mismatch between worker skills and work that needs to be done." As Fine has posited, "efficient achievement of both service delivery system goals and goals of worker well-being under conditions of change require the inclusion of continued skill development as a purposive formal activity in manpower development." She further goes on to note that the traditional concepts of basic or general education and specialized skill and vocational preparation are in need of rethinking. She states that,

> "The traditional two-steps of all general or basic education coming first and vocational preparation second are not adequate for current needs. In a world with a complex technology the thread of basic education seems to run through and precede specialized skill training at all levels, so that in effect what is specialized skill at one level becomes basic preparation for more advanced learning."[2]

These issues and observations provide for several directions in which staff development and demonstration might be developed. While major attention is being focused on new service delivery systems, some attention has been devoted to defining new worker roles. Only limited attention has been focused, for example, on how workers will be trained and retrained for service plans outlined in pending federal legislation like HR 1. It is becoming increasingly important that a mechanism be developed to *translate* new models of manpower utilization into training resources for staff development programs.

As Jean Fine has indicated, there is a growing need to clearly define: (1) specific service activities, (2) occupational types, (3) specific skills required for particular service delivery needs, and (4) organizational structures of agency service programs. This approach to career planning indicates that service objectives and manpower utilization issues need to be linked so that appropriate training can take place. It is at such a point where staff development takes on increased importance.

Research and Demonstration Issues

The Southern Regional Education Board has spent the last several years identifying core skills and knowledge areas required by agency programs with significant implications for educational institutions. However, much translation is still required in order to make use of this pioneering work in agency staff development programs. Service programs have developed in something of a haphazard manner as a hurried response to legislation. Career planning is not taking place in any rational form and personnel are reassigned primarily to meet various crises. There is a growing recognition on the part of state human service agencies that comprehensive planning is needed in answering the question of service delivery and manpower utilization as well as how we train staff to meet our new and changing program objectives. As new worker types emerge, it becomes the responsibility of staff development personnel to provide workers with the necessary knowledge, skill, and attitude components needed to work effectively in the system and to maximize their own career mobility.

The primary focus of a research and development strategy would be an assessment of current staff development programming including the broad range of issues in manpower utilization. The following issues appear to need attention: (1) identifying and conceptualizing the new forms of practice as new services are developed (e.g. adding community organization skills to the repertoire of direct service workers), (2) translating new manpower utilization models (S.R.E.B., Upjohn, etc.) into training packages for use in staff development programs since new services require new service roles and a retraining of existing personnel, (3) combating the isolation of state programs by pooling resources and common problems experienced by other states, and (4) the adapting of new technologies (e.g. computer assisted instruction) to agency training needs. By addressing these issues, the results of research and demonstration efforts will lead to first steps in meeting the following recurring human service needs for: (1) expanded opportunities for human service personnel to improve their competencies, (2) development of specialized training programs with demonstrated effectiveness of innovative and experimental approaches, and (3) the development of specialized teaching materials or training packages.

Research and Demonstration Outcomes

The first outcome of this research and demonstration project will be a careful analysis of the role of the staff development specialist in a state program as well as an assessment of future strategies required for the promotion and development of staff development programming in a state service delivery system. This process will identify the state of the art of staff development expertise and will identify the role strain experienced by workers at the state and local levels who are attempting to train staff for three major areas.

The three areas that we propose to give the most attention to involve: (1) the orientation phase of training, (2) the transitional phase in which a worker moves from direct services to indirect services, and (3) the middle management phase in which a worker moves from a primarily supervisory position into a program oriented planning and administration position. The staff development programs in the past have focused primarily on Area 1 which has been to either orient new staff or hurriedly retrain existing staff to comply with new program priorities. Areas 2 and 3 have continuously been neglected in staff development programming primarily due to the pressures related to Area 1 but also because of a lack of conceptualization of the need for Areas 2 and 3 and the instructional materials needed for such training purposes. In order to better serve client needs, there is a greater need for balance between agency needs and worker needs in any given staff development program. This balance can be brought about by providing workers with training experiences which facilitate upward career mobility. Model training packages will be developed for each of the three phases so identified.

In addition to the role of the staff development specialist and the training packages needed to carry out that role, this research strategy would also identify the various linkages which can be built between agency based training and university based training. It is conceivable that much of what is now taught on the university campuses in formalized programs could be taught in a preliminary phase through an agency based in-service training program. This would allow for workers to remain on the job while improving their skills and at the same time complete what has been viewed as academic requirements. As a result, university faculties might become more involved with agency based training, and agency based staff development specialists might become more involved with curriculum building on the campuses.

A third objective would be to identify the channels in which knowledge is diffused both from the university researcher to the agency as well as from the agency back to the university researcher in an effort to link theory and practice. As yet, there has been very little developed in terms of formalized institutional structures (other than the university student) to carry out this synthesizing of theory and practice between agency personnel and university personnel.

Figure 1

INTERACTION BETWEEN OCCASION FOR TRAINING AND TYPE OF TRAINING*

	Occasion for staff development	Type of staff development activity	
		Specific skill and content (part of a job)	Vocational preparation
Area 1	When worker enters employment.	Frequently needed, depending on specificity and relevance of vocational preparation.	Almost always needed for specialist and generalist roles.
Area 2	When worker transfers to new position and/or worker is assigned new duties within position.	Usually needed, depending on breadth of vocational preparation, general education and opportunity for on-the-job learning.	Depends on "linkage" between old and new position.
Area 3	When policy, procedures, or programs are changed and/or when new knowledge and technological developments must be introduced.	Frequently needed when knowledge is growing rapidly and pressures for system adaptations are strong and if goal is changed to improve system performance.	Sometimes, when knowledge growth is extensive and/or new job types are developed or when change involves new technology, redesign of jobs, or new occupation.

*Adapted from table developed by Jean Fine, "Some Issues in Manpower Development Program Planning," p. 38.

Research Model and Methodology

From a preliminary review of the literature in the field of staff development training programs, it has become clear that there are at least three significant occasions for training opportunities including the orientation experience emphasizing agency procedures, the transition from direct client services to supervisory responsibilities, and the transition from direct service supervisory experiences to agency management responsibilities.

Training programs designed to orient staff need more attention given to the delivery of common services which include client outreach, intake and initial assessment, information dissemination, use and development of community resources, client advocacy, and client referral and follow-up. These are the areas which would receive primary attention in developing a model orientation training package including skill, knowledge, and attitude components. See Figure 1 for an overview of the relationship between the type of training needed and the timing for such training.

The issues identified in the transition from direct services to supervisory responsibilities include the development of new supervisory skills as well as competencies in specialized client services. As a result, training packages are needed to increase competencies in the area of supervisory skills including skills related to teaching workers case management and providing frameworks for gaining expertise; for example, in such specialized areas as medical services, day care services, and job development services.

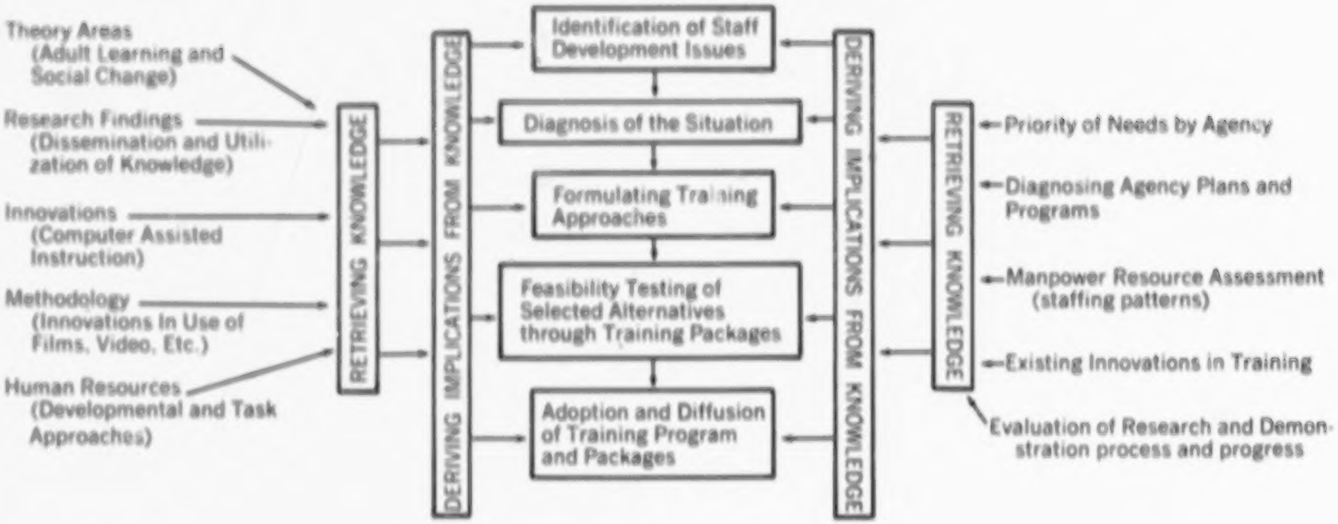
In the transition from supervision to administration, training packages are needed to assist workers in developing management skills and competencies. This will include skill development in planning, administration, and evaluative research. In addition to the knowledge areas required to support such skill development, a primary emphasis will be placed upon leadership development as it relates to analyzing, changing, and improving existing service delivery systems.

With this framework in mind it is then possible to conceptualize the key process of *knowledge transfer* which is at the core of this research strategy.[3] Knowledge transfer refers primarily to the process of diffusing and utilizing knowledge which has been developed through research and practice throughout a system. In this case our system is a human service industry and the adopters of such knowledge include the personnel of a human service agency. A conceptual framework is outlined in Figure 2 and includes the major components of external knowledge which draws upon existing theory, research, and practice as well as internal knowledge which will be derived from practitioners in the field.

A knowledge transfer framework is designed as a way of highlighting the

Figure 2
KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT*

EXTERNAL KNOWLEDGE - draws on - THE STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROCESS - draws on - INTERNAL KNOWLEDGE


Theory Areas (Adult Learning and Social Change)
Research Findings (Dissemination and Utilization of Knowledge)
Innovations (Computer Assisted Instruction)
Methodology (Innovations In Use of Films, Video, Etc.)
Human Resources (Developmental and Task Approaches)
RETRIEVING KNOWLEDGE
DERIVING IMPLICATIONS FROM KNOWLEDGE
Identification of Staff Development Issues
Diagnosis of the Situation
Formulating Training Approaches
Feasibility Testing of Selected Alternatives through Training Packages
Adoption and Diffusion of Training Program and Packages
DERIVING IMPLICATIONS FROM KNOWLEDGE
RETRIEVING KNOWLEDGE
Priority of Needs by Agency
Diagnosing Agency Plans and Programs
Manpower Resource Assessment (staffing patterns)
Existing Innovations in Training
Evaluation of Research and Demonstration process and progress

*This schema is based upon an adaptation made by Ronald Lippitt, March, 1969 from "The Study of Change as A Concept" by Charles Jung and Ronald Lippitt. Reprinted from *Theory Into Practice*, Vol. V, 1, February, 1966.

retrieval of relevant knowledge and deriving practical implications from such knowledge. It emphasizes a *linking* between the knowledge developed by scientists through research with the knowledge developed by human service workers through practical application. This linking phenomenon is identified primarily through the center portion of Figure 2 where various phases of the research and demonstration process are identified including: identification of staff development issues, diagnosis of the situation, formulating training approaches, feasibility testing of selected alternatives through training packages, and adoption and diffusion of training programs and packages.

In the area of external knowledge, there has been an attempt to highlight the major theory areas which include those of adult learning and social change. In addition, research findings in the area of the dissemination and utilization of knowledge will be drawn upon heavily. In the case of specific innovations, primary attention will be given to computer assisted instruction. The methodologies to be explored include recent innovations in the use of tapes, films, video tapes, and other approaches to training including various types of workshops. And finally in the area of human resources, the primary focal point for analyzing external knowledge will be the developmental approach to manpower as highlighted in the studies of S.R.E.B. and the functional task analysis approach developed by the Upjohn Institute.

The analysis of the staff development process will draw equally upon the area of internal knowledge. Active involvement is needed from agency practitioners through special task forces. A task force would assist in evaluating agency staff development plans and programs as well as provide information and assessment of existing manpower resources as they are reflected in the staffing patterns of each agency. Additional input would result from the collection of existing innovations in training from both within the southeast region as well as nationally.

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The process of curriculum building for the design of agency education programs requires inputs from many sources. Of primary importance is the experience and insight of agency staff development specialists and the human service workers themselves. In addition, new technologies have been developed on our university campuses by specialists in instructional technology which need to be assessed for their implications for human service agencies. As a result, a strategy for staff development research and demonstration is needed to assist in charting the much neglected area of knowledge transfer. Workers need to translate their experience into training packages and researchers need to apply their technologies to the realities of staff needs in new service delivery systems. The human service industry needs staff development planning.

NOTES

[1] Jean Szaloczi Fine, "Some Issues in Manpower Development Program Planning," in *Working Papers No. 1: National Study of Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Workers, Work and Organizational Contexts* (Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Social and Rehabilitation Service, May, 1971).

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 36.

[3] Ronald G. Havelock, *Planning for Innovation through Dissemination and Utilization of Knowledge* (Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan Institute for Social Research, January, 1971).

Information Brokerage And Staff Development

Brian Segal

Human service agencies are continuously faced with the dilemma of balancing administrative priorities, service needs and consumer demands. They are caught between diverse poles — shrinking budgets and expanding human needs; traditional methods of policy formulation and increased consumer demands for control and participation in agency policy-making. Traditionally, agency responses to legislation, consumer demand and funding opportunities have been somewhat haphazard. Lack of any significant manpower planning efforts to parallel the development of new service systems has resulted in the matching of obsolete skills in new job classifications and task requirements. The mismatch of skills and tasks is conflictual for the worker and detrimental to agency performance.

Staff development programs, which have long been conceived as important training vehicles for staff in a variety of agencies,[1] have the potential to meet organizational performance and manpower development needs. For traditional staff development methods to adequately meet these needs, contemporary training and personnel issues must be considered. Staff development programs must be oriented towards bridging the gap between

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education and practice through the development of innovative knowledge transfer processes and knowledge flow systems in order to disseminate information to both professional and nonprofessional practitioners, supervisors and administrators in all human service agencies. This presentation will explore an expanded role for staff development through an examination of the methodological, organizational and substantive directions required to increase the viability of this process.

Traditional Staff Development Methods

The various functions attributed to staff development include: recruitment and selection of appropriate staff, initiation of new employees to the agency and to their specific jobs, developing employee knowledge and skills necessary for their jobs, maximization of personnel effectiveness through in-service training and educational leave, and consultation with professional organizations and educational institutions concerned with education and training.[2] Staff development is an administrative function having important system maintenance properties. Since roles are the building blocks of organizations, there is a constant need to socialize new personnel to organizational roles in order to ensure pattern maintenance. Planned orientation programs for new workers thus allow the cultural transmission of policies, procedures, caseloads and interorganizational relationships.

In addition to orientation programs numerous methods are utilized to fulfill staff development needs. Experiences in agencies may include case presentations, sensitivity and encounter sessions, staff committee meetings, speakers on various topical subjects and workshops based on particular problem areas such as drug abuse, protective services or community resources. Such devices as consultation, individual and group supervision, and reading assignments are often suggested to enrich the staff members' knowledge base. Other staff development program ideas include journal club activity, attendance at outside professional meetings, weekend retreats, and involvement in outside professional activity designed to train for more advanced positions.[3]

Much of the present emphasis of agency staff development efforts is on the enrichment of the knowledge base and the augmentation of the skill of the practitioner. The following are but a few examples of the variety of staff development efforts on-going in many agencies. Public welfare agencies, which usually have the most extensive staff development programs, provide orientation sessions for incoming staff, and sponsor a host of program seminars designed to focus on new legislation which is emerging at state and national levels. Community mental health programs utilize psychiatric consultants, case screenings and observations for staff to increase therapeutic techniques. Family service agencies, in addition to providing educational opportunities for their own staff, often develop foster parent workshops to extend agency expertise to meet community needs.

Staff development programs, however, are not fully prepared to meet some of the emerging manpower issues. Rapid changes are occurring in human service delivery systems as a result of demands for more widely accessible and higher quality programs and in response to expansion of the potential universe of knowledge available to the practitioner. These changes have implications for all levels of social welfare manpower since role blurring and ambiguity are likely to occur.[4] The requirement that workers perform new tasks and fill new jobs in changing service systems when they have had little or no preparation for these new situations creates a climate in which role ambiguity is likely to emerge. Role ambiguity and conflict have been demonstrated to have negative effects on worker satisfaction and mobility.[5]

Incidental attention to manpower concerns arising in continually changing organizational systems is insufficient. The organizational health status[6] is dependent upon an innovative manpower development program which can address problems of worker satisfaction and mobility as well as organizational performance. For manpower development programs to be more effective in human service agencies some added new dimensions are required.

Individual Development Approach

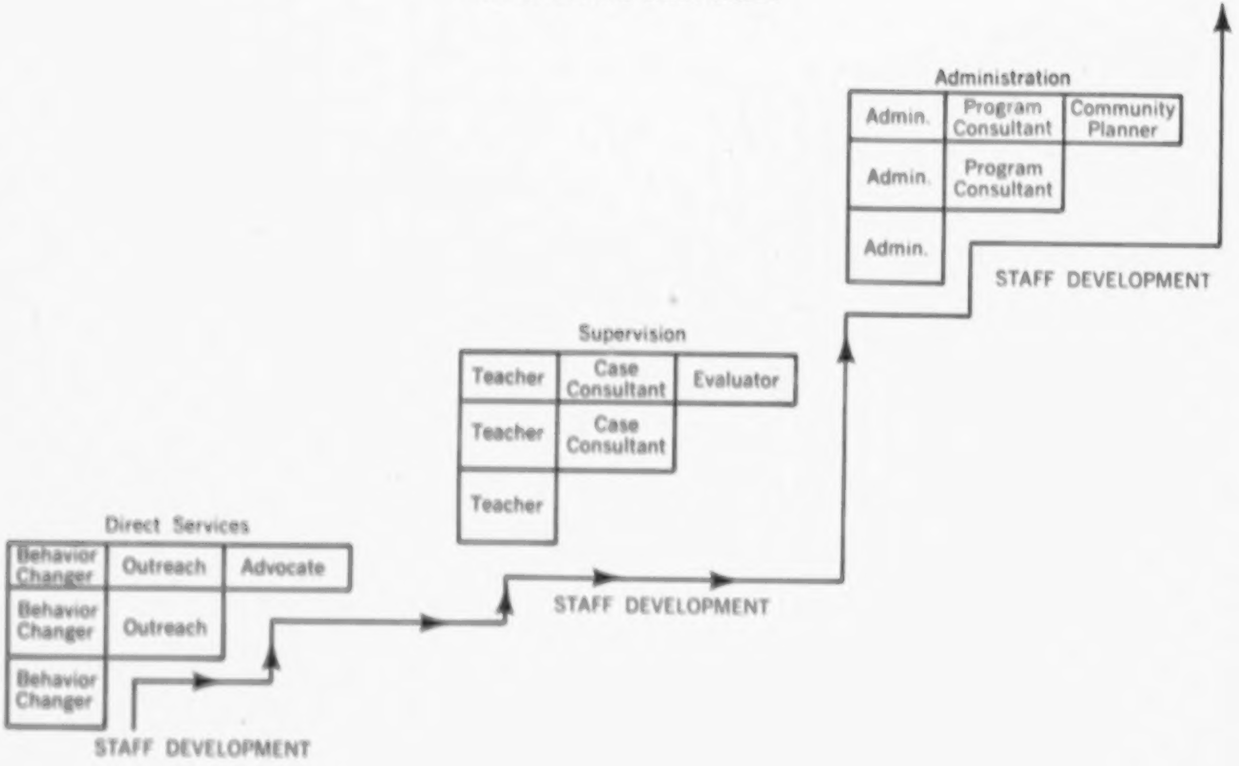
Traditional staff development utilized the *individual development approach*, which views the employee as the primary and the organization as the secondary benefactor of in-service education. This strategy attempts to widen and deepen staff members' competence. While orientation efforts, enrichment of employee knowledge base and augmentation of existing skills are critical to the individual development approach, they often do not provide the worker with skills necessary to perform a wider variety of roles. The elaboration of potential roles which staff members can perform would provide for increased service capacity for the organization.

Agency based staff development usually focuses on helping personnel to become better at what they are now doing rather than helping them to develop skills for the performance of new roles. The word "increasing" often is used in staff development terminology to denote becoming a better counselor, rather than for example, learning new skills to work with groups.

Multiple Roles: A Developmental Skill Model

Most human service agencies have three hierarchical levels: direct service

Figure 1
DEVELOPMENTAL SKILL MODEL


Administration
Admin.
Program Consultant
Community Planner
Admin.
Program Consultant
Admin.
STAFF DEVELOPMENT
Supervision
Teacher
Case Consultant
Evaluator
Teacher
Case Consultant
Teacher
STAFF DEVELOPMENT
Direct Services
Behavior Changer
Outreach
Advocate
Behavior Changer
Outreach
Behavior Changer
STAFF DEVELOPMENT

(line), supervision and administration. Each of these levels has a variety of roles which can be performed by one or more workers. The following is a *partial* list of roles for each level. The direct service level can include behavior changer, outreach and advocate roles.[7] The supervisory level can include teacher, case consultant and evaluator roles. The administrative level can include administrator, program consultant, and community planner roles. It is inadequate to assume that the effective performance of one role is *a priori* a sufficient condition for performance of another role either horizontally or vertically. Acquisition of skills for multiple role performance within and between levels requires continuous staff development programming. Such efforts must teach workers at each level the skills necessary for each role as well as training graduates of each level to take on higher level responsibilities and roles.

Figure 1 provides a schematic representation of the Developmental Skill Model. It demonstrates the step-wise developmental process which offers knowledge and skill training within and between each level. The direct service worker with behavior-changing skills would utilize staff development to acquire knowledge and skills needed to perform the variety of other roles at the direct service level. The direct service worker who enters the agency with the skills to perform all the direct service roles would utilize staff development for supervisory level preparation. Utilizing this model, staff development programs or training packages can be designed for each level, both horizontally and vertically. These programs would be continuously available for all workers requiring skill development for proficiency in more roles at a given level or for promotion to new job levels.

The direction of training towards skill development and knowledge acquisition is designed to elaborate worker role ranges, increase intra-agency mobility, decrease inter-agency mobility and assure the effective translation of technological developments into practitioner skills. It is also a direct counter attack to the Peter Principle.[8] This developmental approach is designed to provide human service personnel with the information and skills necessary for effective role performance thus lessening the risk of role ambiguity.

These new directions make the *individual development approach* a critical part of staff development. At the same time new service systems are developing, bureaucratization and professionalization are two continuing processes which parallel increased public control over services. This has a severe impact on the organization and its ability to deliver services. While the individual development approach stimulates worker change it may not have major impact on the growth and development of the organization. Effective staff development must therefore also include efforts at organization development.

Organization Development Approach

An assumption underlying the individual development approach is that individual learning will transfer to the organization and thus increase organizational performance. It is acknowledged that transfer of personal learning to the organization will enhance the organization's functioning. Organizations, however, are systems of roles. Roles are performed by people. As people leave the organization the investment in their training by the organization leaves with them. Individual development, therefore, does not provide a permanent strategy for organizational renewal and change.

Staff development can be a primary prevention instrument for what has been called "organizational dry rot".[9] Through an organization development strategy it can provide a climate for both organization and manpower renewal. Such a strategy implies that

> . . . to achieve fundamental changes in organization performance, it is necessary that the organization's culture — its history and present problems — be the subject of membership-wide study, examination, and planning for execution of change.[10]

Blake and Mouton have pioneered the organization development program based on their analytic work of managerial styles.[11] The organization development approach while recognizing the need for individual growth views the organizational system as the primary benefactor of the change efforts. This approach

> . . . introduces concepts, methods and skills for changing the organization's culture to promote the conditions of choice under which more productive behavior can occur.[12]

While their strategic model relates to production organizations, much of it can be adapted to human service agencies.

The organization development approach is designed to include the entire agency staff who are defined as performing a professional role. This serves the important function of social inclusion and encourages staff to feel a part of a wider social collectivity. A five phase in-service training model based on the work of Blake and his colleagues includes: (1) analysis of worker styles and orientation towards consumer, (2) examination of superordinate-subordinate relationship, (3) analysis of intergroup relations, (4) planning organizational change goals and (5) implementation of agreed upon plans.

Phase One: Worker Styles and Orientation Towards Client

During the first phase staff members are exposed to behavioral and social science theory which delineates frameworks for effective action. Alternative analytic and intervention approaches are presented for the purpose of enabling workers to develop a common language through which to discuss professional points of view. The intention is to develop a common understanding of intervention theories by staff at all levels of the organization so as to enhance communication and decision making. Groups are composed on a "diagonal slice" basis thus containing staff from different departments so as not to be inhibited by their boss-subordinate working relationships. Simulated problem-solving, team performance critiques, discussions regarding each individual's intervention style and team image presented to client represent some of the substantive discussion issues. This approach allows for interdepartmental concerns to be discussed outside traditional agency structures. The goals of this phase would include: individual insight into intervention approaches, development of more open communication patterns, increased problem-solving alternatives and greater awareness of the effect of traditions and precedents on performance.

Phase Two: Superordinate-Subordinate Relationships

This phase focuses on the work group or the team development. Groups are composed of a boss with his immediate subordinates, starting with the top group and reaching lower levels at a later point. Individuals may thus be a boss on one team and a subordinate in another. Administrative personnel from all levels are involved in this phase since the assumption is that organization development could not occur without administrative support. The groups discuss administrative and interventive styles, review job descriptions and performance expectations, review historical precedents and procedures, use of authority, problems of communication and set departmental and individual performance goals. The goals for this phase are more effective communication and problem-solving between groups both horizontally and vertically.

Phase Three: Intergroup Relations

Coordination between different departments in an agency is often a problem hindering effective organizational performance. This phase focuses on the creation of better problem-solving methods and structures between work groups or departments through a review of existing relationships related to specific problems. It aims at evolving closer integration between the separate work groups. Each work group cognitively describes its self-image and the image of the other groups in the agency. These images are then exchanged between groups. The groups then attempt to understand why they are viewed as they are and to resolve service problems related to these images. The objective of this phase is to remove intergroup blockages and increase communication and problem-solving horizontally and vertically.

Phase Four: Planning Organization Change Goals

This phase provides the vehicle through which organizational change takes place. Consumer involvement during this phase optimizes the planning process through community feedback. Groups of ten to twelve staff members along with consumers formulate intra-agency and client service change goals for the whole organization. After the change plans are discussed by groups in the organization, each work group specifies the aspects of the total organization change plan for which they are responsible. The objectives for this phase are for administration, work team, and individuals to understand and identify the planned changes and to accept responsibility for their implementation.

Phase Five: Implementation

The purpose of this phase is to implement organizational change plans. Individual staff members, work teams, and task forces develop regular problem-solving and implementing mechanisms both horizontally and vertically. Specific plans should be charted by each group with timetables, objectives and strategies for implementation. Implementation efforts must be reviewed and evaluated on an on-going basis. The organizational feedback method is a technique for using the findings of survey research to be used by personnel to realize the status of the change process in the organization.[13]

The organization development model presents a general framework which can be adapted by human service agencies interested in increasing performance through staff and consumer involvement. The ideology behind this method is that organization development is a collective process which involves all levels of personnel and consumers — it cannot be legislated. Human service agencies which operate through mechanical structures can through cultural change, move towards a more dynamic operating state. Such a state is characterized by mutual confidence and trust, shared responsibilities, multi-group membership and responsibility, wide sharing of control, and conflict resolution through problem-solving and negotiation.[14] The organization development approach provides a potential mechanism for humanizing bureaucracies and creating a service climate attractive to the consumer. While it has not been attempted with human service agencies, Blake and Mouton report success with fifteen different production organizations. As an experimental approach, organization development merits consideration.

Training Overhead

Planning staff development programs necessary to achieve multiple skill roles and organization development goals requires administrative commitments and new staff development specialist roles. Fine has pointed out that:

> . . . although changes in procedures, program, policy, and work routines in the long run produce operating benefits, in the short run they carry an orientation or skill-training overhead.[15]

The skill development and technological update payoffs will increase agency performance and service and will require that a training overhead be included in the operating budget. Many agencies, by offering stipends for their employees to return to school for more credentials already have incorporated some training costs in their budgets. This training approach at the graduate level only reaches a select few, and focuses singularly on the narrow conceptions of the traditional individual development approach. It is also discriminatory against those staff, for example, who do not hold the Baccalaureate degree or those who do but would rather not return to school. Existing training expenditures must be re-evaluated by many agencies in light of high worker mobility patterns, relevance of long-term university training to the agency, and overall improvement in performance.

A Typology of Staff Development Roles

Implementing the skill development and organization development models requires elaboration of role ranges to be performed by a staff development specialist. During this period of pyramiding information resources the staff development specialist performs a linkage function between knowledge generating and knowledge consuming systems. Knowledge generating systems include universities, research institutes, conferences, and other human service agencies. Practitioners are viewed as knowledge consumers.

Knowledge Broker[14]

A knowledge broker function is an integrating force working towards greater coordination in the total education process from the university or community college, to the practitioner, to the client and his family. The knowledge broker works towards the development of an interface between education and practice. Higher education, with its elaborate technological facilities offers the practitioner knowledge resources and predictive theories for use in planning and service delivery. The realm of service delivery — its needs, organizations, and programs — offers educational programs an opportunity to maintain relevancy by relating curriculum and research to the exploration of solutions to social problems.

In order to create a knowledge flow system between the educational service systems, the knowledge broker ought to be marginal to both systems; (i.e. teach at the university or community college and function as a staff development specialist in the agency). Another means of enhancing a knowledge flow system is by offering university or community college credits for staff development courses offered by the agency which could be team taught by faculty and staff development specialists.

The Conveyor Role

The conveyor or carrier role is the most simplistic knowledge linking role. Its function is to transfer knowledge from generating sources (scientists, developers and researchers) to consumers or non-experts.[17] The science reporter who retrieves and interprets knowledge from a variety of scientific fields can be seen to be performing a major conveyor role.[18] This role attempts to bridge the gap between producers and consumers and offers an interesting possibility for the staff development specialist. One way of ensuring greater translation of technological developments into practice would be through a type of *disseminator newsletter* which would abstract and report material relevant to the agency.

The Trainer Role

The trainer functions under the assumption that knowledge can be transferred through an intensive learning experience under structured conditions. The trainer has control over the learning environment. The skill development model requires a staff development specialist who has expertise in planning behavioral objectives, programmed instruction and computer managed instruction. Specific behavioral objectives should be included in the curriculum design. The importance of defining instructional objectives for sound educational planning has strongly been emphasized.[19] These objectives specify what the *outcomes* of training need to be. According to Gagne:

> In the general sense, what is learned is a *capability*. Furthermore, it is a capability of exhibiting certain performances which could not be exhibited before the learning was undertaken.[20]

Behavioral objectives for staff development programs would add rigor and provide a structured learning situation for the participants. They will also enable the staff development specialists and the participants to review their own performance against expected standards.

Programmed and computer managed instruction have enormous applicability to the staff development process. The utilization of these methods is increasing rapidly in graduate education programs.[21] Rothman and Jones point out a number of values to social work education of programmed instruction.[22] As a prestructured instruction mechanism, clarity and precision in developing learning objectives are inherent in programmed instruction. They also point to the need for complete student involvement in the program writing. As a mechanism for validated instruction, programmed instruction ". . . consistently produces important real-world behavior".[23] They also view programmed instruction as a form of educational capital by changing the training cost structure through an increase in fixed costs and a decrease in variable costs.

Another rapidly developing area for a staff development trainer's involvement is computer managed instruction. The student and the computer interact in a learning-teaching situation in which program materials on the computer set up problem situations and programmed learning steps. As with the programmed instruction text, this too has learning objectives and provides the student with individual opportunity to learn at his own pace. At some futuristic date, computer managed instruction through agencies could be hooked up to university centers where these programs can be planned by educators and practitioners. Since most cities and small towns have computer terminals in banks or other small businesses there would be no difficulty in establishing a hookup with a major computer center hundreds of miles away.

Computer managed and programmed instruction can have great utility for the skills development approach through the packaging of training materials within horizontal and vertical levels. An individual wishing to develop outreach skills could gain much academic experience by confronting real world situations through programmed instruction or the computer. A major part of the knowledge and skill component would be taught through these simulated situations with minimum investment of continuous manpower time.

The trainer role is most complicated and requires some specialized training. In addition to competency in programmed and computer managed instruction, the trainer should be aware of the differential effectiveness of multi-media stimuli such as films, video-tapes, radio recordings and reading material on such learning objectives as factual information, retention, learning principles, concepts, rules, procedures, skills and attitudes.[24]

Summary and Conclusion

Staff development is an organization and individual renewal strategy. It is strongly suggested that developmental skill and organization development models be incorporated in agency based training to handle emerging manpower and service delivery issues. This will necessitate the creation of new roles for the staff development specialist and will spearhead a more systematic and planned approach to agency training programs. This thrust implies that the agency will accept greater responsibility for manpower training and that the university will assume responsibility for training the staff development specialist to perform a wide variety of roles. Innovations in staff development crystallize the potential for an education and practice interface, increased worker satisfaction, and improvement in agency performance.

NOTES

[1] See George W. Magner and Thomas L. Briggs, (eds.), *Staff Development in Mental Health Services* (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1966). Carol Meyer, *Staff Development in Public Welfare Agencies* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1966). *Training for Child Care Staff* (New York: Child Welfare League of America, 1963), and Hilda Tebow, Eleanor Taylor and Euline Hawkins, *Administrative Approaches to Staff Development in Public Welfare Agencies*, U.S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1968).

[2] Joanne I. Bell, *Staff Development and Practice Supervision*, U.S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1968), p. 7.

[3] Dorothy Schroeder, "Basic Principles of Staff Development and Their Implementation," in George W. Magner and Thomas L. Briggs, (eds.), *Staff Development in Mental Health Services* (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1966), p. 50.

[4] According to Olmstead, role ambiguity occurs when the worker lacks sufficient information and skills for adequate role performance. See Joseph A. Olmstead, "Organizational Factors in the Performance of Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Workers", *Working Papers No. 1, National Study of Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Workers, Work and Organizational Contexts*, U.S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Gov't Printing Office, 1971), p. 112.

[5] Robert L. Kahn, et al., *Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964).

[6] Bennis has suggested three criteria for organizational health: adaptability, identity definition and reality testing. For a more in-depth analysis see Warren G. Bennis, *Changing Organizations* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966), Chpt. 3.

[7] These roles are borrowed from the manpower utilization research conducted by the Southern Regional Education Board. See Harold L. McPheeters and Robert M. Ryan, *A Core of Competence for Baccalaureate Social Welfare and Curricular Implications* (Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board, 1971). These roles are suggested examples for each level. Agencies, according to indigenous needs, can change or expand the roles in each category.

[8] Laurence F. Peter and Raymond Hull, *The Peter Principle* (New York: William Morrow & Co., 1969).

[9] John W. Gardner, "How to Prevent Organizational Dry Rot," *Harpers Magazine*, October, 1965.

[10] Robert Blake and Jane S. Mouton, "Organization-Development Strategy of Training," Rolf R. Lynton and Udai Pareek, *Training for Development* (Homewood, Ill.: The Dorsey Press, 1967), p. 59.

[11] Robert Blake, et al., "A Managerial Grid Approach to Organization Development: The Theory and Some Research Findings," *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 42, 1964.

[12] Blake and Mouton, *Op. Cit.*, p. 59.

[13] This method was developed by Floyd C. Mann and has been applied in various organizational settings. See Floyd C. Mann and Franklin W. Neff, *Managing Major Change in Organizations* (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Foundation for Research on Human Behavior, 1961) and Floyd D. Mann and Rensis Likert, "The Need for Research on the Communication of Research Results," *Human Organization*, Vol. 11, 1952, pp. 15-19.

[14] Warren G. Bennis, Op. Cit., p. 118.

[15] Jean S. Fine, "Some Issues in Manpower Development Program Planning," *Working Papers No. 1, National Study of Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Workers, Work, and Organizational Contexts*, U.S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Gov't Printing Office, 1971), p. 35.

[16] The roles are based on the work of Ronald G. Havelock, *Planning for Innovation Through Dissemination and Utilization of Knowledge* (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1971), Chapter 7.

[17] *Ibid.*, Chapter 7, p. 3.

[18] *Ibid.*, Chapter 7, p. 3.

[19] Robert M. Gagne "The Implications of Instructional Objectives for Learning," C. M. Lindvall, (ed.), *Defining Educational-Objectives* (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1964), pp. 37-46.

[20] *Ibid.*, p. 38.

[21] The material presented by Rothman and Jones reinforces this direction. See Jack Rothman and Wyatt Jones, *A New Look at Field Instruction* (New York: Association Press, 1971), Chapter 7.

[22] *Ibid.*, p. 135-141.

[23] *Ibid.*, p. 136.

[24] See William H. Allen, "Media Stimulus and Types of Learning," *Audiovisual Instruction*, Vol. 12, 1967, pp. 27-31.

PART V

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Competency And The "Delivery System": Where Educators And Employers Meet

Robert J. Teare

I would like to tell a story which I think may characterize the historical relationship between the employer and the educator or the teacher and the practitioner in any of a number of areas of the human services. One day, a man went in to see a surgeon because he had a strange growth sticking out of the top of his head. The growth looked and acted like a frog. After he got over his initial shock, the surgeon looked at the man and said, "Now just what can I do for you?" Instead of the man answering him, the frog replied and said, "Would you please remove this growth from underneath me?"

Admittedly, this story is a somewhat bizarre way to begin a presentation dealing with the subject of competency and the relationships between educators and practitioners. However, there seem to be a good many situations in which the educator and the agency administrator tend to view one another

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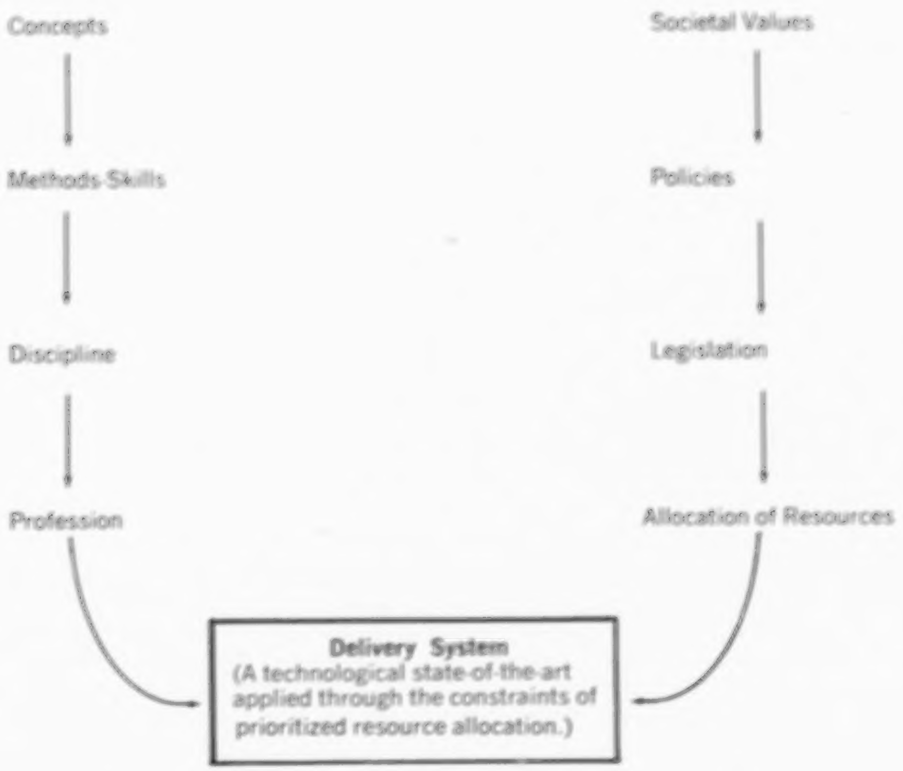
as did the frog and the man in our story. There are several parallels. It is a fairly close relationship. It may be an uncomfortable one for the parties involved. It is a symbiotic relationship in which each party is dependent upon the other but may be looking for ways to get rid of the "unwanted growth." I chose the story for those reasons. It helps to set the context for our deliberations.

As I began to prepare for this presentation on "competency," I tried to assess it from the standpoint of my own field of Psychology. I felt it would be useful to see what, in fact, is known or agreed upon about the nature of human abilities. To be very honest with you, there is not a great deal of agreement among scholars on this matter. Consequently, I am going to suggest that we start with the premise that we are talking about a fairly primitive concept (e.g., competency) where the need for practice far outstrips the ability of the theorist and the researcher to provide definitive and unequivocal information to us.

I will make a second assertion. You may or may not agree with it. I feel very strongly that education and training must, more than anything else, be preparation for occupational viability. I have pretty well abandoned the notion that people are either motivated by or interested in information simply for its own sake. As a result, I approach the notion of competence with the assumption that educational preparation in this area should be geared primarily to the enhancement of occupational performance. I am talking about "competence" for functioning within a delivery system of one kind or another rather than "competence" for functioning in an educational setting. The competence to which I refer is that associated with the practitioner.

For the past year and a half, I have been working with paraprofessionals in social welfare and have also been fortunate enough to have been associated with the reorganization of a large department of public welfare. This latter experience has probably been the most rewarding and humbling experience of my relatively young life. It has given me some insights into the practical, political, economic, legislative, and occupational realities of social services in the public sector. On this experience, I base my third set of assertions. This has to do with the nature of the occupational setting of the individual about whom the competency question revolves. I think we can assume, more often than not, that these social service personnel will be salaried and working in relatively large organizations. Those organizations will be functioning under fairly clear and explicit legal mandates and under not so clear, implicit, cultural mandates that stem from the political philosophies and the spirit of the communities within which they are imbedded. We are talking about an individual who will be operating and working with relatively limited resources where need will far outstrip supply. We are also talking, I suspect,

Figure 1
DUALITY OF THE DELIVERY SYSTEM


Concepts
Methods-Skills
Discipline
Profession
Societal Values
Policies
Legislation
Allocation of Resources
Delivery System
(A technological state-of-the-art applied through the constraints of prioritized resource allocation.)

about an occupational setting where the likelihood or possibility of bringing about change either in the organization climate or the sociopolitical climate will involve going "against the grain." As I review these comments, I recognize that I paint a somewhat bleak picture of the occupational setting of the person about whom we are talking. I am sorry to dampen enthusiasm but that is the way that I see it.

When we deliberate in our planning, it is easy to make a common mistake. We tend to talk about human service personnel in fairly idealized terms. What tends to emerge is a kind of fulfillment of our fantasy life about what a profession or occupation ought to be like rather than a reflection of what it *really is*. We educators sometimes tend to maintain our sanity by avoiding the realities of the job market. So we train our students as if they were going to be top-level decision-makers in huge organizations with unlimited resources. The realities of what they are frequently called upon to do are very different. The most typical human service worker is salaried, and working in a relatively large publicly-funded organization of one kind or another. He will have limited resources to work with and relatively little chance for self-development and self-growth through staff development programs.

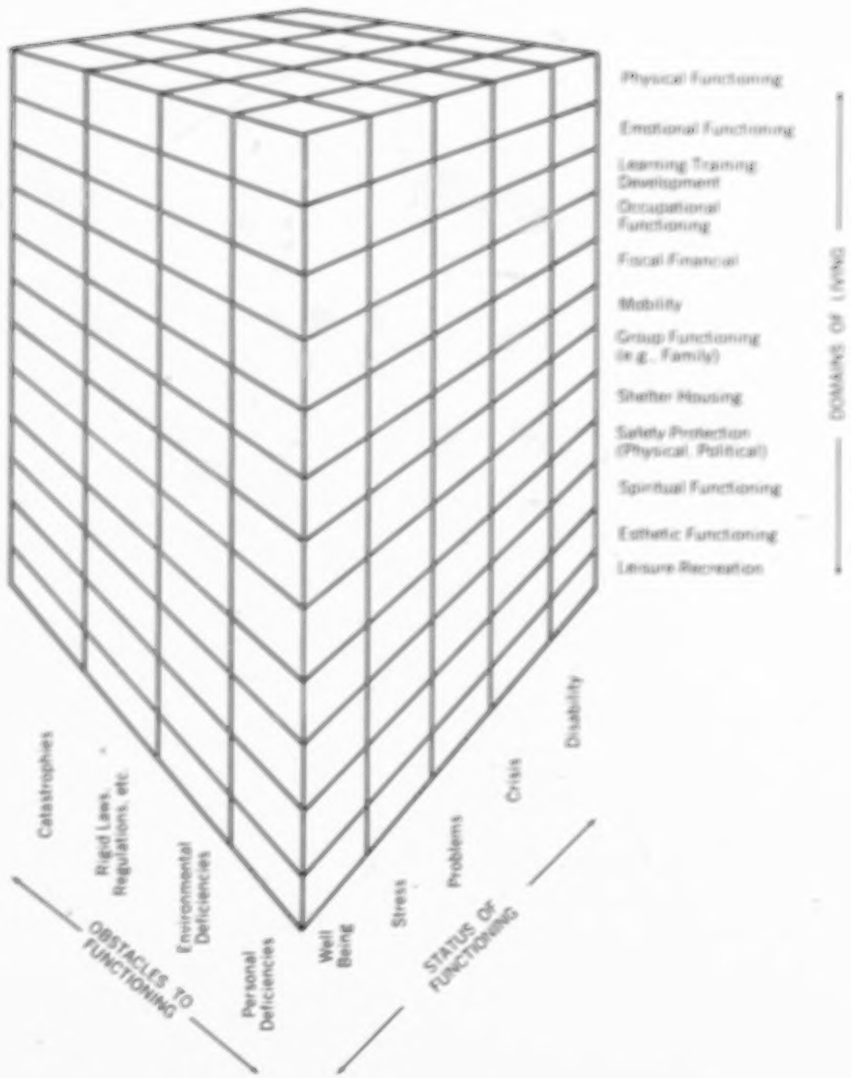
Given these assumptions and statements of context, I would like to spend some time talking about several centers of competency related to the notion of a service delivery system. I have used the term "delivery system" rather than "practice" intentionally. Most of us, when we go through our educational experience, are given some conceptual preparation which makes us eligible for membership in a profession. We get our image of ourselves from what we know and the professional organizations that we belong to. Thus girded, we are ready to practice our profession. I am suggesting that there is a far more elusive and much more influential kind of world that shapes the nature of practice about which we say very little to our students.. It influences, perhaps more profoundly, the nature of what they will do and the ways in which they will do it than any methods course, conceptual framework, or professional self-concepts will ever be able to do. I am referring, of course, to the "delivery system" into which they will be placed upon the completion of their training. This abstraction, the delivery system, is rarely talked about in most of the educational experiences with which I have had contact. I am asserting that any approach to the definition of competency must include the clear delineation of several sets of concepts. First of all, there is a base of material regarding knowledge and skills. This body of material makes up the "discipline" which is then imbedded, through some kind of certification or accreditation procedures, and becomes the purview of a "profession". It is important to educate our students and workers to the realities of "disciplines" and "professions" which stake out claims on certain content areas, certain methods, and skills, which become the "territories" of various professions.

Added to this, perhaps like the "growth from beneath" is another stream of events. Societal values associated with the problems the professions are designed to ameliorate are translated into policies. These policies are translated into legislation which specifies the division of labor, the allocation of resources, and the organizational forms within which the professions will operate. This marriage of the conceptual body of knowledge and skills to the value orientations of society represents relatively separable streams of events which eventually blend into the delivery "system". This marriage, more often resembling a shotgun wedding, has tremendous influence on how the worker functions and the standards by which he will be judged. It is this marriage that permits workers to use their knowledge and apply their tools but it is always done within the confines and constraints of a resource allocation system which may often not be sympathetic to what they are trying to do. This is the notion that I found myself having to deal with when I was talking about competency. It is this aspect of reality that I have rarely seen in the programs and the universities that I have visited with or dealt with. As it now stands, when a student leaves to enter the world of work he is confronted by a world of systematic constraints which we have generally avoided talking about and for which he is little prepared.

When one starts thinking about a delivery system, the question must be answered about how one can conceptualize it or even communicate about what it does or how it operates. It is in this area that some work done with the Southern Regional Education Board may be useful.[9] The purview of a human service delivery system can be thought of as a three-dimensional framework. This "cube" is depicted in Figure 2. One dimension includes the major sectors of the human service industry and is labeled "DOMAINS OF LIVING": These include: physical functioning, emotional functioning, learning-training-development, occupational functioning, mobility, group functioning (e.g., family), spiritual-esthetic functioning, leisure-recreation, fiscal-financial functioning, safety and protection (physical and political).

In the **DOMAINS OF LIVING**, it is easy to see the diverse elements of the human services. Various occupations and professions have pretty well staked their claim on all of these areas. For example, the paramedical professions deal with a wide range of physical functioning. The teaching occupations staff the education systems. Employment counselors and various rehabilitation personnel deal with occupational functioning. The entire range of domains could be enumerated. Some of these domains are very explicit and are represented by specific instrumentalities. Others are quite diffuse. The fact does remain, however, that the various **DOMAINS OF LIVING** are serviced by different organizational structures in the community, the region,

Figure 2
BASIC FRAMEWORK OF SOCIAL WELFARE
DELIVERY SYSTEM
(Human Service Problem Areas)


Physical Functioning
Emotional Functioning
Learning Training Development
Occupational Functioning
Fiscal Financial
Mobility
Group Functioning (e.g., Family)
Shelter Housing
Safety Protection (Physical, Political)
Spiritual Functioning
Esthetic Functioning
Leisure Recreation
DOMAINS OF LIVING
Catastrophies
Rigid Laws, Regulations, etc.
Environmental Deficiencies
Personal Deficiencies
OBSTACLES TO FUNCTIONING
Well Being
Stress
Problems
Crisis
Disability
STATUS OF FUNCTIONING

or the state. A human service worker must negotiate the pathways between these agency domains in order to meet client needs. Many of these domains have become the "turf" of a discipline or a profession which has built a delivery system of people, money, buildings, resources, and legislative protection designed to deal with problems and difficulties arising in their domain.

The second dimension of the cube involves what we have called "STATUS OF FUNCTIONING." It is an expansion of the work of Levine (1966).[3] It is an attempt to depict the fact that individuals or groups, at any given point in time, can be characterized in terms of how well they are functioning in any one or more of these domains. It represents a continuum of functioning, from "well-being" to "disability" for individuals, groups, or communities. It should be noted that this continuum also contains the concept of "risk" or "vulnerability". This is an important component. Even though the human services have accepted the concept of "risk" and its implications for prevention, such a concept is difficult to implement in practice. Most of our present-day delivery systems cannot, by law, intervene until an individual reaches crisis. This means that most human service workers, regardless of organizational setting, are going to be dealing most often with people who are experiencing acute trauma of one kind or another in any one of these domains. That is the reality of this situation. Many attempts at early human service intervention (except in medicine) have met with stiff resistance from various pressure groups in society. Thus, while we are busy developing elegant rationales for preventive intervention, there are many constraints against practicing what we preach.

The third dimension of the cube, labeled "OBSTACLES TO FUNCTIONING" characterizes various barriers that are seen as precipitating the movement of people into "crisis" and "disability". These include: personal deficiencies, environmental deficiencies (lack of resources), inappropriate laws, prejudice, and rigid regulations, and catastrophies or unforeseen events. These phenomena are seen as the reason why individuals or groups vary in their ability to function in one or more of these domains of living.

It is within the context of this kind of conceptual framework that one can begin to conceptualize job activities and the competencies associated with them. Such a framework permits us to talk not only about activities associated with client needs but also about activities linked to the constraints built into the delivery systems that try to deal with those needs.

A set of functions and a series of roles have been developed from the cube described in Figure 2. The roles include outreach worker, broker, advocate, evaluator, teacher, behavior changer, mobilizer, consultant, community planner, care giver, administrator and data manager. (They are described in

Table 1). In our judgment, these roles can be blended with one another to form major clusters and centers of gravity.

Using these roles as basic building blocks, I'd like to talk about three major areas of activity or spheres of competence. These have evolved from my experiences over the course of several years with a variety of human service organizations and, most recently, with a large public welfare operation. These role configurations probably require further testing and validation, but if I had to predict what they were likely to look like this is the way I would configure them. There would be three "centers of gravity" stemming from the fact that there is a programmatic, a maintenance, and a survival component in any human service delivery system (See Figure 3). These three clusters are oriented, respectively, toward the client, the organization, and the environment.[8] The structure of a delivery system can therefore be segmented into a division of program administration, a division of internal affairs, and a division of external affairs. Program Administration is the place where the customer or the client is served and his needs are met. Internal Affairs is concerned with the managerial and organizational aspects of the delivery system. External Affairs deals with the public or the environmental interfaces of the system.

In the program area, worker roles will be clustered primarily around direct services. This is where we have located the roles dealing with care giving, certain kinds of linkage, advocacy, and outreach. More and more, the thrust seems to be toward those services that will provide hard, tangible, and measurable services. There are people clamoring for jobs, housing, transportation, clothing, safety, and decent food. Clients want teeth, they want glasses, they want shoes, they want food, they want a decent job, they want housing, they want a way to get around. They don't want to get mugged when they walk the streets, and they don't want to get the runaround when they walk into our offices. The roles we have specified in the program are not new. They do reflect a more tangible type of performance and imply a more active rather than passive posture toward the client.

The second set of roles concentrates on what I'll call organizationally centered work. They are necessary because we presently have multi-billion dollar investment delivery systems in terms of cash flow, people, buildings, and equipment. Someone must run them and run them efficiently. I think there may be two components here. One centers on the administrative role and is concerned with planning, budgeting, and control. This person is primarily concerned with the structure and the administrative functions of the organization. The second component is a people-oriented role (the manager). Here I am talking about teacher, trainer, program planner, behavior changer, and supervisor. At present, this seems to be more of a middle management

Table 1
S.R.E.B. ROLE CONCEPTS[4]

1. **Outreach Worker** — implies an active reaching out into the community to detect people with problems and help them to find help, and to follow up to assure that they continue toward as full as possible a fulfillment of their needs.

2. **Broker** — this has two aspects:
   a. involves helping a family get to the needed services. It includes assessing the situation, knowing the alternative resources, preparing and counseling the person, contacting the appropriate service, and assuring that the client gets to it and is served.
   b. involves linking together various components or elements of organizations within the delivery system. This includes initiating contacts, assessing the need for joint effort, and serving as the catalyst for the linkage.

3. **Advocate** — this also has two major aspects:
   a. pleading and fighting for services for a single client whom the service system would otherwise reject (regulations, policies, practices, etc.)
   b. pleading or fighting for changes in laws, rules, regulations, policies, practices, etc., for **all** clients who would otherwise be rejected.

4. **Evaluator** — involves gathering information, assessing client or community problems, weighing alternatives and priorities and making decisions for action.

5. **Teacher/Trainer** — includes a range of teaching from simple teaching (i.e., how to dress, how to plan a meal) to teaching courses in budget or home management, to teaching in staff development programs; teaching aims to increase peoples' knowledge and skills.

8

6. **Behavior Changer** — includes a range of activities directed to changing peoples' behavior rather precisely. Among them are simple coaching, counseling, behavior modification and psychotherapy.

7. **Mobilizer** — involves working to develop new facilities, resources and programs or to make them available to persons who are not being served.

8. **Consultant** — involves working with other persons or agencies to help them increase their skills and to help them in solving their clients' social welfare problems.

9. **Community Planner** — involves participating and assisting in planning of neighborhood groups, agencies, community agents or governments in the development of community programs to assure that the human service needs of the community are represented and met to the greatest extent feasible.

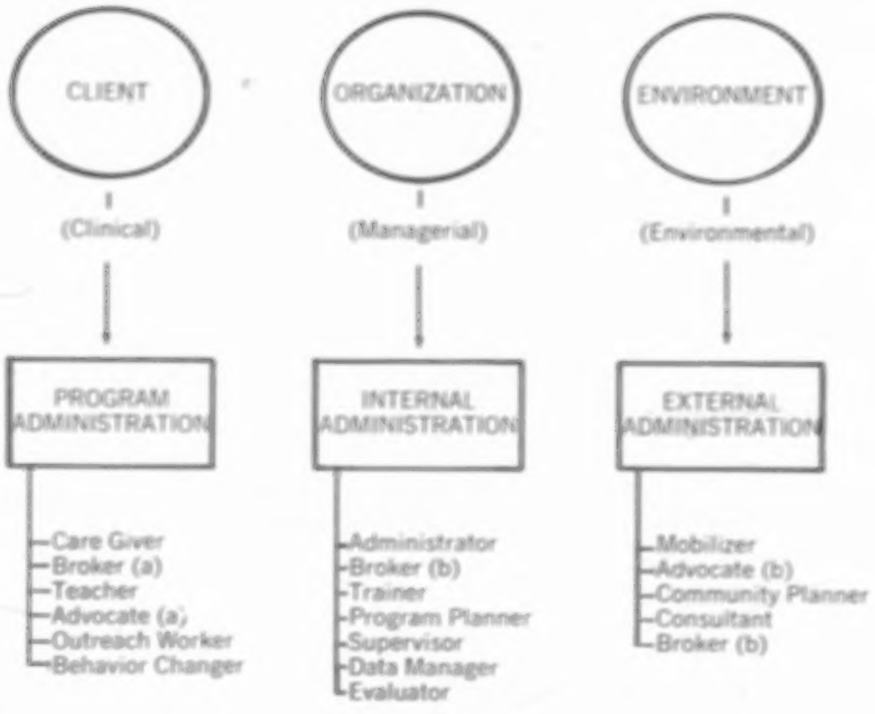
10. **Care Giver** — (This was not well defined in the symposium) — involves giving supportive services to people who are not able to fully resolve their problems and meet their own needs, such as supportive counseling, fiscal support, protective services, day care, 24-hour care.

11. **Data Manager** — includes all kinds of data gathering, tabulating, analysis, and synthesis for making decisions and taking action. It ranges from simple case data gathering, through preparing statistical reports of program activities to evaluation and sophisticated research.

12. **Administrator** — includes all of the activities directed toward planning and carrying out a program such as planning, personnel, budgeting and fiscal operation, supervising, directing and controlling.

Figure 3

SYSTEM SEGMENTS AND WORKER ROLES[a]


CLIENT
ORGANIZATION
ENVIRONMENT
(Clinical)
(Managerial)
(Environmental)
PROGRAM ADMINISTRATION
INTERNAL ADMINISTRATION
EXTERNAL ADMINISTRATION
Care Giver
Broker (a)
Teacher
Advocate (a)
Outreach Worker
Behavior Changer
Administrator
Broker (b)
Trainer
Program Planner
Supervisor
Data Manager
Evaluator
Mobilizer
Advocate (b)
Community Planner
Consultant
Broker (b)

function in our present systems and this is where I see the biggest gap in the manpower pool. The human services seem to be short on middle management. In the systems I deal with, if half of the county department directors died tomorrow, the system would collapse because there is nobody waiting in the wings to take over. Middle management functions provide the linkage (Broker - b) between the programmatic service oriented functions that take place at one part of the organization and the administrative budgeting-fiscal-control-management functions in another part. As it stands now, I see very few people that are able to make that slippery transition from service worker to people manager. Given the complexity of our present-day systems, this is a critical weakness in our capacity to manage efficiently a program in effective services.

Another aspect of internal affairs has to do with the fact that in just about any delivery system there is a mountain of paper that has to be processed, enumerated, aggregated, sifted through, and evaluated. From what I have seen, a much maligned and most neglected aspect of our delivery system is the data base on which it operates. I don't know how many service organizations I have been in where I have seen a room, usually in a basement, that contains anywhere from 20 to several hundred file cabinets. These may contain medical records, social service case records, or student files. This mass of information constitutes the only place where the data for clinical investigation into the service intervention process exists. Despite its present limitations, it is from this data base that the concept of a management information system for service organizations must be built. In order to be useful for planning, costing, and evaluation, such a system must provide a systematic way of classifying, enumerating, and aggregating data points on client and organizational functioning without reading through 49 pages of narrative and getting more gossip than fact. I am asserting, therefore, that an operationally oriented information system must cut across the programmatic, the internal, and the external divisions of the organization. To implement this function, we have included the roles of data manager (including research), program planner, and evaluator.

The third set of roles centers around the environmental or community-oriented cluster. These contain tasks that are concerned with mobilization functions, interagency linkage, community planning, advocacy, and consultation. This cluster is concerned with the interface between the agency and the environment in which it operates, whether it be the local community, the state, or the federal government.

These pages of comments give you some of the context that I bring to the notion of competency. I see those three arenas (clinical, organizational, and environmental) as being very different from one another. I see people having to wear at least two hats. I feel the skills required by the various roles may be quite different. To me, this implies the need for competencies in several areas rather than a generic competency.

In summary, if I had to add to the notions of competency for someone who is going to work in a human service occupational setting, I would highlight the concepts underlying the nature of a delivery system and how it operates. I would try to get across the fact that it is shaped in very fundamental ways from public values affecting legislation, resource allocation, and administrative procedures. It is this complex mix of legislative values, resource limitations and administrative machinery that spotlights new worker roles for me and tells me a great deal about competence.

As a result, I feel it is critical that human service workers be aware of the value that we hold in this country about such services. They are made explicit very rarely. They are clearest perhaps in the rhetoric of election campaigns. Let me illustrate my own perceptions about our values. I sense that individual activity is seen, by our society, as better than collective activity. The person who can make it alone on his own resources is seen as a better person than someone who has to rely on outside resources. Doing it alone is seen as better than doing it with some help. So, anybody who needs some help is not quite as good as somebody who doesn't. A parallel value holds that competition fosters growth. As a result we place great weight on competition among the young. Cooperation is learned later. Despite our protests to the contrary, we are a materialistic society. We place great value on the accumulation of possessions in the private sector and in our personal lives. Bigness is good, except in government. In that sphere, the smaller the better. We are not very good at delaying gratification. We want things now. To be present-oriented is to be relevant.

I have talked very briefly and, perhaps, somewhat superficially about these values. I have brought them up because I feel they have implications for our public service delivery systems. Since needing resources implies deficiency, our clients are stigmatized. The need for service delivery systems is not seen as a basic component of societal functioning but as a necessary evil to deal with defective or undeserving individuals. Medical services have freed themselves of this stigma in the 18th and 19th centuries. Psychiatric and mental health services have begun to free themselves in the latter part of the 20th century. Welfare and social services have not made it yet.

On the question of size, the value issue comes into play clearly. It is a rarity to find acceptance to the goal of increasing the size of welfare rolls and the range of services. Emphasis is placed, rather, on reducing grants to clients, eliminating clients from the rolls, and keeping the scope of services within limits. This is a strange goal to aspire to if one believes strongly that the welfare and social service system is a viable and necessary sector of society.

Many of these values are formed in the absence of information. Most people (either workers or laymen) do not know how resources are allocated to service systems. They have never attended a legislative session or budget committee hearings. They have no notion of how appropriations are made. They do not really know how legislation is drafted and how resources are appropriated which determine, on a formula basis, how most of the resources of our publicly funded programs are allocated, disbursed, and eventually accounted for. Until these processes and values are more clearly understood by workers, their technical competencies will be blunted by what will seem to them to be a strange and hostile environment within which they will be asked to ply their trade.

In my comments, I have tried to separate and to synthesize the basic dimensions of "competency" subsumed by the process of delivering services to people. I have attempted, in a very preliminary way, to take these dimensions, crystallize them into roles, and cluster these roles along clinical, organizational, and environmental lines. I have added to the roles, very superficially, I fear, some threads dealing with values and information requirements. Needless to say, I see "competency" as a multi-dimensional phenomenon.[4] I see it reaching its highest state of development only by means of mutual collaboration between the agency and the academic community. This collaboration can only come about when each of these two parties recognize their separate, and *unique*, contributions to this blend of competency.

NOTES

[1] See Robert J. Teare and Harold L. McPheeters, *Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare* (Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board, June, 1970).

[2] D. L. Levine and E. B. Lipscomb, "Toward an Epidemiological Framework For Social Work Practice: An Application to the Field of Aging," *The Gerontologist*, 6, 3 (Part II), 1966.

[3] This three-fold distinction is not necessarily new. It is consistent with the thinking of Kast and Rosenzweig (1970), Katz and Kahn (1966), Lorsch (1970), and Parsons (1960). These theorists have all viewed organizations as multi-dimensional in scope. What we have attempted to do in our work in public welfare is highlight these distinctions, amplify them in terms of manpower roles, and give some indication of the different worker "sets" implied by these different orientations. What should be immediately apparent from even this brief discussion, however, is the fact that traditional professional training which emphasizes only the "clinical" functions is quite incomplete when imbedded into a public-sector delivery system.

[4] From Teare and McPheeters, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 34-35.

[3] Note that the various roles are presented here as if they can only exist in one segment. Quite obviously, many of them can function in more than one segment. Thus, the "behavior changer" may deal with a client, a staff member, or a legislator. This depiction is designed to show the "center of gravity" of the roles.

[4] In some respects, we may have to unlearn or expand some of our traditional definitions of competency. To move in this direction, we have prepared reading lists for our students in manpower utilization seminars. I would like to share some of these citations with you: Anonymous, *The Sabre Toothed Curriculum;* Robert Ardrey, *The Social Contract;* Buckley, *Social Systems;* Cleaver, *Soul on Ice;* De Tocqueville, *Democracy in America;* Ellison, *The Invisible Man;* Griffin, *Black Like Me;* Michael Harrington, *The Other America;* Ivan Ilych, *Jobs and Education: The Great Training Robbery;* Jane Jacobs, *The Economy of Cities;* Jefferson, *The Jefferson Papers;* Helen Keller, *The Story of My Life;* Ken Kesey, *One Flew Over the Coocoo's Nest;* Kluckhohn and Strodbeck, *Variations in Value Orientations;* Mintz and Cohen, *America, Inc.: Who Owns and Operates the United States;* Jonathan Swift, *An Immodest Proposal to the Solution of the Irish Potato Famine.*

Guidelines For The Design Of Career Systems In Human Service Agencies: The Illinois Experience

Myrna Bordelon Kassel

Background of the Illinois Effort

During the past six years career ladder designs were developed for three human service departments within Illinois state government. The Mental Health Worker Career Series was developed internally by the staff of the Department of Mental Health and officially approved by the Illinois Civil Service Commission in December 1969. As of May 1971, the Department was reviewing a modified version of this series, proposed by a consultant firm which had been engaged to conduct a comprehensive personnel study of the Mental Health Department during 1970.[1]

Myrna Bordelon Kassel, Ph.D., served as the Director of the Human Services Manpower Career Center in the Illinois Bureau of Employment Security until her death in February 1972. This paper has been edited from the concluding section in her Monograph #2, *Career Systems in State Human Service Agencies*, June 1971. Other monographs in the series include: *An Overview of the Work Progress Report*, Monograph #1; *A Core Curriculum for Entry and Middle Level Workers in Human Service Agencies*, Monograph #3; *Community Organization for Allied Health Manpower*, Monograph #4; and *Neighborhood-Based Child Care Services for the Inner City*, Monograph #5.

In March of 1970 the Illinois Department of Personnel requested the Human Services Manpower Career Center to undertake the design of career opportunities systems in two State Departments, the Adult Division of Corrections and Children and Family Services. An agreement was concluded to share the cost of the field studies and technical work required. In October of 1970 these studies were submitted to all of the State Departments for their review and further action.

At the time these efforts were undertaken, the programs in each of these Departments were in their own unique stage of development and transition. During the period from 1965 to 1969 the Department of Mental Health was engaged in the effort to bring about massive changes in the state mental health system. The organization structure of the Department was being decentralized into eight regions. New zone centers were in the process of construction throughout the state and long-range plans were being shaped for a community-based mental health service system. Existing treatment programs within the state hospitals were being re-examined in an effort to upgrade the quality of service and to return hospitalized patients to the community.

In this climate of change the Department's leadership expressed its concern that an adequate supply of trained manpower be available to staff the new zone centers and hospitals programs. It was also prepared to re-evaluate existing patterns of manpower utilization at all levels and to consider the need for upgrading present personnel through the improvement and acceleration of training.

The Department of Corrections in 1970 was experiencing something of the same large-scale organization and program change as it began to move from custodial to social rehabilitation objectives within the penitentiary system. When the career studies were undertaken, this Department was preparing a long-range plan which called for a shift in the functions of guards and other prison personnel, as well as an expanded staff development program. The Department of Corrections, a much smaller system than Mental Health with its over 20,000 employees and relatively large complement of professional staff, was confronted with a different dimension and set of problems. One of these, for example, was the racial imbalance between staff and inmates. The problem of professional staff resistance to the use of generalists or lesser trained personnel loomed large in the mental health system. In Corrections, however, a key issue seemed to be how to infuse new rehabilitation-oriented professional personnel into the program while at the same time bringing existing staff closer to the new program goals.

In the Department of Children and Family Services, prior attempts to develop career opportunities for new manpower had taken the form of a proposed Social Service Aide series, similar to those developed in several states and now generally approved by social work professional groups. The proposed series was essentially an entry level series for persons who would function as assistants to social workers; persons who, if they exhibited the potential and were able to secure additional formal education, might eventually qualify as social workers.

This Department within the framework of its budgeted positions was experiencing no significant entry or middle level manpower shortages. The Director reported the availability of a large supply of four-year college graduates, many of whom were attracted to employment in this program because of the opportunities available for full-time educational leave to earn Master's degrees in social work. Except for the projected expansion of the Department's activity in the area of day care, no immediate plans to employ large numbers of new workers or to effect significant changes in the existing service program were communicated to the team which undertook the study.

The differences between these three Departments notwithstanding, they have in common their primary commitment to provide human services to specific client groups. They must all rely upon the human resources available to provide these services through interactions between staff and client. Each is organized into a service delivery system through which program goals are expected to be transformed into tasks that are subsequently executed by people assigned to jobs. Finally, the purpose of all three efforts was essentially the same, to maximize the possibilities within a human service delivery system for all of its employees to advance themselves in terms of increased responsibility, earnings, personal growth and job satisfaction while at the same time fulfilling broad management goals and expectations.

From these experiences in the design of three human service career ladders in state government, we would offer the following recommendations concerning ways to approach the task and the principles to be considered.

A. What Is The Objective?

Historically, the New Careers program and other movements to develop career opportunity systems in public employment have been employee-centered rather than management-centered. They have focused mainly on developing a structure of positions, classes and staffing patterns that favor staff development potentials. They seek to open up new entry level positions for disadvantaged persons and new middle level positions for individuals with less than four years of college education. A primary objective has been to eliminate a dead-end employment by building pathways wherever possible that link low-paying jobs to higher paying jobs in some effective sequence. To achieve and sustain this upward mobility process, career ladder designers place high priority on the acquisition of training and on-the-job experience.

A second theme has developed out of the pioneering work of Dr. Sidney Fine of the Upjohn Institute for Employment Research in developing a systems approach to functional task analysis and job design. This approach begins by looking at the organization's charge, expressed goals, subsystems, resources and options. From this framework tasks are identified as precisely as possible, clustered into jobs and then structured into viable career ladders. The basic view implicit in this work is that success in the development of a career opportunity system must rest solidly on its contribution to management goals. This approach is described by Dr. Fine as "a management concept . . . one that seeks to make optimal use of human resources but is not in and of itself an agent of change."[2]

Finally, we have seen developing both in the literature and in the organizations of New Careerists throughout the country a third theme.[3] This is the view that a key objective in the New Careers movement is to change the human service delivery system. These changes are expected to be brought about by the impact of indigenous staff who are closely identified with the client group and who, as they enter and move upward in agency structures, will significantly influence the organization and administration of program services.

While this is obviously an oversimplified statement of the three principal approaches, it is clear that one objective is more worker-oriented, one more management-oriented and the third both worker and client-oriented.

In our approach to career ladder design, our objective has been to integrate and augment these views. We believe it is not only possible but essential to do so. We have in each case, particularly in mental health and corrections, begun by critically examining the effectiveness of the existing service delivery system. In both these departments it was necessary to comprehend the direction and tempo of changes taking place in program services. We saw our work as contributing directly and significantly to the implementation of these changes. The recommendations we made were perceived by management as new tools for the utilization of their manpower resources. And throughout, we saw ourselves as fully committed to the needs and aspirations of the work force.

We suggest therefore a fourth, a community or public frame of reference, which attempts to integrate worker, management and client interests with those of the broader community and its expectations for the highest quality of service which can be obtained with given available resources.

B. The Working Tools

It is clear to us that career ladders in the human services cannot be designed solely by personnel technicians, using traditional job classification skills. While these skills are relevant, they are best used in combination with the insights, skills and commitments of service program staff. The development of neat and technically defensible career ladder classifications is next to useless if they bear little or no relationship to program needs. Conversely, program staff are generally unfamiliar with the tools of the personnel technician and, if unassisted, may fail to apply the technical information which specialists with solid merit system backgrounds can contribute.

With the appropriate interaction of the two, the tasks that are needed to be performed in an organization in order to carry out its purposes and achieve its goals and objectives can be examined, catalogued and ordered in terms of their content and complexity. At all times, the tasks must be perceived in the context of the values of the organization. Only then can they be related to an appropriate description of the knowledge and skill required to perform these tasks in a satisfactory way.

The methodologies used in our studies were diverse, combining interview and survey techniques, group discussion and problem-solving with key administrators and the application of certain functional task analysis tools. We saw functional job analysis as only one in a broad repertoire of skills and strategies available to us in our task. As we proceeded, we found it necessary and possible to design workable Civil Service classifications on the basis of selected field studies that identified agency goals, programs and manpower requirements.

In our view, it was not necessary or desirable in every case to subject the functions of jobs to a rigorous task analysis. Many times it appeared clear from a much less magnified examination that a particular course of action ought to be taken to enhance career opportunities within a service delivery system. The further fact is that we had to operate within prescribed timetables that did not permit an in-depth analysis of all the tasks performed in each agency.

In a social system that operates only sporadically on the basis of comprehensive rational planning, one in which political and fiscal realities are perpetually present, many of us are often called upon to respond rapidly to an agency's urgent immediate needs. This means that sometimes we cannot withhold a response until all of the pieces are properly dissected and analyzed. Having said this, we are nevertheless aware that changes in job classifications and titles are a waste of effort unless they are at some point in time woven into a continuing process of examining agency goals, tasks, job requirements, work assignments, performance standards and training needs.

C. Factors Contributing To Change

In our judgment it is a mistake to rely too heavily on the infusion of new manpower into a human service agency as a means for bringing about profound changes in the delivery of services. Those who overemphasize the impact that indigenous manpower or community college graduates can make on programs fail to realize that this is only one element in the capability of a system to perform adequately. Administrative commitment and leadership, adequate funding, the design and location of physical facilities, the readiness of professionals and middle level managers to modify their established roles and the rising expectations of client groups are all key factors in bringing about a systems change.

It is also counterproductive to become so incensed by the widespread resistance of professionals to changes in their roles that professionals as a whole are written off as potential change agents. It is true that the lack of initiative being taken by members of the professional community to re-examine the ways in which they make use of their scarce talents and skills is particularly disappointing. Yet we are convinced that the practice of launching generalized attacks on the professional establishment only serves to stiffen resistance and alienate a rich potential source of help. There are often good reasons for professionals to feel personally threatened when new, less academically trained workers prove exceptionally capable in the execution of tasks traditionally performed only by professional staff.

It was our experience, for example, in the Departments we worked with that increasing numbers of professionals are ready to venture into new roles as trainers, consultants and providers of specialized resources to the new workers who will be the backbone of our human service delivery system in the years to come.

D. The Value of Generic Manpower Concepts In Human Service Career Ladders

In designing these career ladders we have consistently favored the development of broad generic classes for workers in the human services. Similarly, we have held fast to this approach in designing core educational programs for the community colleges. Our reasons for taking this direction are responsive to the needs of agency program directors, personnel administrators, clients, workers and educators:

1. There are advantages to a program or delivery system in working with a generic series tailored to its needs. One of these is the independence and flexibility it offers a program to request changes in specifications or salary level of its classes. The Illinois Department of Corrections, for example, already enjoys this advantage to a degree. The recent change from its Parole Agent series to a Correctional Parole Counselor series with an increase in salary levels and a change in job description would have been far more difficult had parole officers been working under class titles such as "Social Worker I and II" as they are in other jurisdictions.

2. A generic class structure provides great facility to career ladder development and to the design of developmental training programs.[4] It can more easily than other classification schemes be constructed to accommodate the needs of both program and staff, without unnecessary barriers to change. Professional titles suggest, in fact demand, maintenance of the standards established by the profession for its practitioners. These standards may not coincide with the standards actually required by the needs of the program, its clientele or the resources available to satisfy the professional's image of who should be given status in the system.

3. A generic series binds together into one hierarchy of job classes all employees within a system who are striving to accomplish the same set of objectives in the same or similar ways, particularly where their efforts are generalized within the program or system, rather than specialized with reference to outside criteria.

For example, if the team concept in a mental health facility calls for the staff to include a psychologist, a social worker, a psychiatrist, a nurse, and an activity therapist; and, if the psychologist *only* administers and interprets psychological tests, the social worker *only* takes family histories and conducts family interviews, the nurse *only* ministers to the patient's bedside needs and observes his behavior, the therapist *only* engages the patient in crafts work, and the psychiatrist *only* sees the patient on some regular basis in order to work toward constructive behavior change, a generic class series is not needed. In fact it is not, practically speaking, possible.

But if, on the other hand, all team members are working generally to accomplish the objective of improving the behavior and mental health of patients in their area, have developed similar skills and have diffused their roles in the treatment program, despite their diverse professional training backgrounds, they might be considered excellent candidates for inclusion in a generic "mental health worker" series.

4. Although a generic class series ordinarily attaches to a service delivery system, it may be designed to span parallel or linking delivery systems within a Civil Service jurisdiction. While we recommend, for example, that the correctional career series be introduced at this time only in adult programs, it would be entirely reasonable to link it up with juvenile corrections programs in the future. Within a single generic series the continuing absurd proliferation of Civil Service titles is abated. Workers can be redeployed to new assignments as programs change without becoming entangled in onerous personnel transactions. Salary inequities among workers performing tasks at the same level are reduced, along with employee grievances.

5. Functioning within a generic series, the worker has wider options for horizontal mobility. As a mental health worker, for example, he can choose a program relating to children, older adults, or the retarded in a variety of settings, such as hospitals, clinics, schools, courts or neighborhood programs. He does not enter the labor market as a one-dimensional figure with a narrow range of skills.

6. From the point of view of the agency client, the generic structuring of formerly fragmented occupations holds promise of more effective delivery of services. The work of the Southern Regional Education Board as well as the Institute for Social Policy in Illinois illuminate the need for human service generalists trained to respond to the total needs of the client, while serving as a link to other specialized services.[5]

7. As we will indicate in another section, the generic concept is a boon to educators who are already overloaded with an excess of fragmented and perishable training programs and specialized degrees. The simplification of human service classifications can be a positive contribution to schools which are now attempting to develop curricula for each variety of human service aide or technician.

E. Career Ladder Semantics

In our terminology, we have consciously avoided the use of such words as para-, sub-, pre-, semi- or non-professional to describe entry and middle level manpower in the human services. In our judgment all of these terms are pejorative. They clearly diminish the self image of the worker who is unfortunate enough to be identified in this fashion. We are reminded of the paper written by one such worker entitled, "How it Feels to Have a Non-Profession."[*] Such terminology also runs counter to the team concept of manpower utilization in the human services. The implications of that concept require us to view each member of the team as a full partner in his relationship to others, contributing the full measure of his skills and knowledge in the service of the client.

However, this question goes beyond the issue of semantics. It is central to the design of a genuine career ladder. In the preceding descriptions of our career ladders, you will have noted that each ladder proceeds from entry level classes to the top of those classes traditionally reserved for "professionals." We take the view that a career system which merely provides several levels of aides has begged the question. A ladder must be long enough to bridge the distance between the entry level trainee and the most competent and experienced direct service staff in the system.

F. *Professional Standards Versus Relevant Standards of Service*

The concepts embodied in the Illinois career ladders represent a reversal of trends toward greater "professionalization" and ever higher grade-level requirements of education for employment in human service programs. These are trends that have gained momentum for many years. They have been only slightly slowed down under the influence of "New Careers" movements. The fields of mental health, child care and corrections have been susceptible to these trends, but have consistently had difficulty in establishing and maintaining the standards of educational preparation they continue to demand.

In human service agencies this approach to professionalizing the work force has commonly resulted in overqualifying employees in terms of their general and professional education, while at the same time failing to improve the actual skills needed to serve clients effectively. For its "treatment" personnel, human service agencies have relied upon graduates of university programs in sociology, psychology, social work and psychiatry. The results in terms of verifiable program success have not been satisfactory to administrators or to practitioners in the field. Graduates of these programs emerge well-equipped with the conceptual armor of the human behaviorist. However, they are ordinarily quite shorthanded in interactive skills and unprepared to deal with the kind of institutional climate that incarceration in our penitentiaries and mental hospitals produces. A frequent result is a flowering of diagnostic prose, which fills out many a case record. On the other hand there is seldom a comparable achievement of work towards solving the problems identified in diagnostic workups.

In any case, the severe shortages of these "trained" personnel have rendered most discussion of their real contributions academic. The final report of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, issued in October, 1969, commented on this circumstance which affects all human service fields:

> "If corrections hope to meet current challenges, they must face up to a problem that plagues every field suffering shortages of trained personnel. That problem concerns the attributes required of an applicant in the form of education, training, experience, and personal characteristics.
>
> There has been considerable controversy over the kind and level of formal training required of these employees who work primarily with individual offenders in their daily life situation. The prevailing standards, established largely by national professional organizations and encouraged by some federal agencies, are by no means universally accepted by correctional agencies. In fact, in the view of many observers, this disagreement has served to retard the growth of educational programs for the field of corrections.
>
> The preferred standards are not being met in the vast majority of correctional agencies today, and the projected output of graduate schools indicates that there is no possible way for them to be met in the foreseeable future. Their continued existence, however, tends to have a dampening effect upon the whole correctional system and the educational programs which do supply manpower for the field."[9]

In practice, the links between what is learned in the professional or graduate schools and the tasks graduates are asked to perform as employees are not as clear and obvious as outsiders tend to assume. While some of these curricula are relevant in their general content to the needs of human service agencies, some are more relevant than others. Each contains sufficient irrelevancies to make questionable its being held as an absolute prerequisite to employment in the field. Graduate programs in corrections or criminology, for example, might be regarded as relevant. But they are still too few in this country to supply the demand for trained correctional personnel at appropriate levels of entry. The links between education and practice have become even more tenuous, however, as many human service programs have begun to turn to the general Baccalaureate degree as a requirement, after failing to attract enough graduate professionals. The irrelevance of a general B.A. requirement is somewhat easier to establish. Its weakness as a predictor of effectiveness on the job is apparent.

In the past we have tried to screen out failures from our programs by fixing general levels of education as requirements for employment. We then proceed to set these levels ever higher in an effort to "upgrade" job classes and salaries. The result has been a mixed benefit. Undoubtedly more acceptable employees per thousand applicants are to be found for some jobs by requiring the Bachelor's degree. On the other hand, however, such policies often tend to recruit overqualified persons who find the work lacking in challenge and stimulation. Furthermore, because it is easier to rely on college training one wants to believe is relevant, staff development programs get little priority in such settings. While all of this is taking place, the unemployment or underemployment of persons without college degrees is perpetuated.

Our efforts must now be directed toward establishment of practical and realistic norms for hiring and promotion. It will be necessary to find the proper value to be placed on general education in the setting of standards. We will need to assess the value of graduate education in the most practical way for the effectiveness of programs. While it is our hope that more and more institutions of higher learning will develop curricula aimed at meeting agencies' needs, in-service training programs within the agencies themselves must be developed simultaneously.

In a genuine career opportunity system, emphasis is placed on the hiring of applicants with potential for success. The agency assumes responsibility for the planning and design of whatever training inputs are needed to augment the essential accumulation of work experience in the total learning process. We do not regard a series of promotional steps that require employees to leave the service in order to acquire first one then another diploma or degree as a seriously conceived career opportunity system. On the other hand, there are many possible combinations of work and study, in-service programs and educational leave that can be realistically linked in a career development program.

G. From Within And Without

Career ladders which focus exclusively on lower level positions not only restrict opportunities for upward mobility but tend to damage the morale of existing staff. We have observed this phenomenon in many agencies who have limited their New Careers programs to bringing disadvantaged persons into entry level positions, providing them with excellent training opportunities and supportive services. If, while this is taking place in an agency, comparable opportunities for staff development and promotion from within are not made available to other employees, staff resistance begins to stiffen against the new recruits.

Middle level positions also need to be carefully articulated into the ladder to accommodate those persons who seek employment after completion of a community college or four year college education. In many cases these are superior persons from disadvantaged and minority group backgrounds who at great sacrifice have managed to remain in or re-enter school. Many of these people in today's tight labor market are finding themselves excluded from Public Service Careers program slots because they are no longer sufficiently "disadvantaged" or because no middle level positions have been developed to receive them.

For these reasons, career ladders need to be designed in such a fashion as to provide (1) an opportunity for the upward mobility of workers functioning at *all* levels within a system, as well as (2) a series of points of entry for new workers coming into the system from the outside with varying levels of prior education and experience.

H. Utilizing The Full Human Potential

In designing career ladders, a central question involves the differentiation of the levels of workers to be placed at each rung. We have already made clear our rationale for not establishing levels based on formal educational requirements. We have also emphasized the serious consequences which flow from relying on such irrelevancies as who is or who is not acceptable as a "professional" to groups of persons who have described themselves as professional. There is, however, a third tendency, equally counterproductive, to establish hierarchies in human service systems which follow too closely the industrial production model.

We refer here to approaches which seek to establish levels of work on the basis of a scale which ranges from "simple, routine tasks" to increasingly higher levels of complexity. The scales developed to measure various levels of skill and work complexity in commerce and industry, however, do not fit neatly into the human services. Here we find settings that require a worker to make the fullest and most spontaneous use of all his human resources in a constantly changing scene of unique clients.

Psychiatric aides, for example, working in a state mental hospital ward, where professional resources are generally meager, cannot be described as performing "simple routine tasks," if they are in fact genuinely involved in the treatment and rehabilitation of patients. On the contrary, they are expected to be able to respond to the full range of client needs and to make judgments on such highly complex matters as when it is appropriate to call for professional support. The same enormously varied role functions of entry and middle level workers are evident in child care, correctional and other human service agencies.

What we apparently need is another way of perceiving and describing levels of work in the human services, a way that recognizes the extraordinary complexity of the nature of the tasks involved at all levels in the human service occupations.

We suggest that considerable further work is required in this area if we are to avoid the traditional pitfalls of job factoring; that is, developing ladders which relegate to lower level workers only those tasks identified as unworthy of the professional's investment of time and energy. Not only does this practice damage the dignity and self-image of the mass of direct care workers, it also denies the reality of most work situations in the human services where a program, to be successful, must draw upon the total repertoire of skills, insights and knowledge of every member of the staff team.

In our Illinois work, which is firmly committed to the generalist concept in the training and utilization of human service workers, we are moving toward another set of criteria for differentiating levels of workers. We are inclined to see the entry level worker as one who learns by direct interaction with clients, peers and more experienced workers about the full range of his client's needs. As he proceeds to learn from others, to apply his own resources and to test himself in new work experiences, he becomes capable of training others to replace him. As he moves up the ladder, he assumes planning functions within the framework of existing programs. He also begins to broaden his knowledge and experience by exposure to new tasks and work settings. At higher levels he becomes responsible for the design of new programs and for changing what exists to something better. Finally, persons with the potential for moving up the full length of the career ladder are those who have learned how:

(1) to use existing techniques and resources to serve the client group competently;

(2) to teach others what they are learning;

(3) to develop innovative approaches to upgrading programs and services; and

(4) to design and implement methods for continually assessing the results which the program achieves in accomplishing its objectives.

I. Congruence In Public Policy

One of the advantages of having undertaken work in several agencies within a state jurisdiction is the opportunity it has provided to recommend some measure of consistency in public policy across agency boundaries. It is a regrettable fact that within state and local governments meaningful interaction and communication are most frequently undeveloped. As a result it is entirely possible for one agency to pursue an enlightened set of manpower policies while another within the same governmental sector adheres firmly to its traditional personnel practices. To those who are responsible for the central development and administration of personnel policies, Model Employer programs, and Public Service Career programs, we strongly recommend that basic principles and standards be clearly established which can then become the mores governing public policy and declaring the commitment of each part of the system to a common set of objectives.

J. Pre-Conditions For The Successful Implementation Of Career Ladders

In the fiscal year 1972, we anticipate that in Illinois, efforts will be made to implement the career systems in mental health and corrections. As we look hopefully ahead to these developments, we believe it is possible to identify some of the pre-conditions for success:

1. Commitment from Top and Middle Level Management

Department Directors, including the State Personnel Agency, must unequivocally express their commitment to the program, signaling this message down the line. At each level, it needs to be made clear that agency leaders will take personal responsibility for providing the necessary resources and for clearing away all existing barriers to the implementation of a career opportunity system for all employees.

2. Adequate Program Staff

The implementation of such a career system necessitates the full-time attention of a coordinator and a staff of helpers who can address themselves to reclassification problems, fiscal matters, training, negotiation with educational institutions, the counseling of employees and the provision of other supportive services.

3. Participation of the Work Force

Building into the program a broad base of participation of staff in the planning and administration of the program will provide continuing feedback to its managers on all aspects of the operation. The staff can also be extremely helpful in taking responsibility for the orientation and support of new workers, as successful "Buddy Systems" have clearly demonstrated.

4. Built-In Evaluation

The program requires a continuing process of self-assessment augmented by outside monitoring. To provide broader and perhaps more objective evaluation, program managers must search for ways to determine the program's effectiveness from the varied points of view of managers, supervisors, workers, trainers, clients and concerned community representatives.

NOTES

[1] On August 1, 1971, The Department of Mental Health proceeded to implement the career ladder, utilizing the revised specifications.

[2] Sidney A. Fine, "A Systems Approach to Manpower Development in Human Services," paper delivered to National Conference on Social Welfare (New York, New York, May 1969).

[3] Expressions of this view are consistently represented in the publications of the New York University, New Careers Development Center and the University Research Corporation (Washington, D.C.).

[4] See Monograph III, *A Core Curriculum for Entry and Middle Level Workers in Human Services Agencies*, particularly the Appendices which contain statements from the College of Du Page, YMCA Community College and Governo State University, three educational institutions in Illinois committed to training human service generalists.

[5] Southern Regional Education *Board, Roles and Functions of Mental Health* Workers (Atlanta, Georgia, 1970).

[6] University Research Corporation, *Career Development Newsletter* (April, 1971).

[7] *A Time to Act*, Final Report of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training (Washington, D.C.: Joint Commission, October 1969), pp. 26-28.

Institution Building For Career Planning

Michael J. Austin

As special area planning projects have been completed by the staff of the Florida Board of Regents over the past several years, several important issues have surfaced. How can the dialogue between educators and agency representatives lead to more relevant campus curriculum and new patterns of staffing in our agencies? Also, how can the dialogue be continued and institutionalized? The problems related to creating an atmosphere for meaningful dialogue between busy agency representatives and busy educators cannot be overlooked. Once an atmosphere is developed, it becomes apparent that meaningful discussion will need to continue beyond the short life of a planning project. How, then, can continued communication and collaborative planning be institutionalized?

While several planning strategies have been discussed throughout this monograph, there is a need to identify a mechanism for coordinating on-going changes and developments in both academic planning and agency management. This coordination will require the development of a focal point for planning for the building of institutional relationships. The concept of in-

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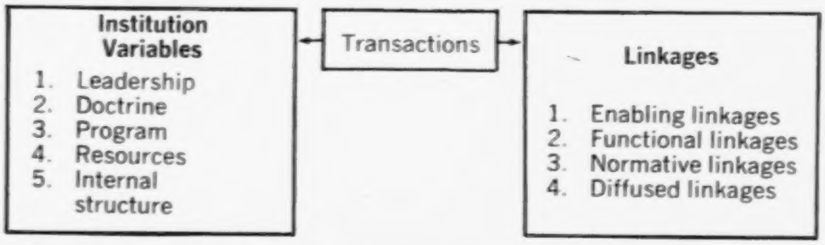
stitution building has been utilized in research overseas in an effort to explain the development of new institutions of higher education as well as new agencies to meet the needs of developing nations.[1]

It is possible to utilize such a conceptual model of institution building as a way of specifying the parameters of interinstitutional cooperation. By this, we mean that there are many unique aspects to the development of a coordinating mechanism not only between the community colleges and the universities but also between educational institutions and state human service agencies. Such a conceptual framework is outlined in the figure below.

Figure 1
INSTITUTION BUILDING FRAMEWORK



This framework outlines the factors which must be taken into consideration when establishing a formal means of collaboration in higher education as well as between higher education and human service agencies. The key variables for institutionalizing a collaborative approach between academia and agencies include the elements of leadership, doctrine, program, resources, and internal structure.

In reference to leadership the framework refers to "the group of persons who are actively engaged in the formulation of the doctrine and program of the institution and who direct its operations and relationships with the environment." The operation of an institution based on coordination must be maintained by those key individuals who are directly involved with educating and utilizing manpower in the field of human service delivery. In an effort to formalize involvement, it is necessary to create a network of individuals on the campus and in the agency who understand the need for cooperation and collaboration in the area of manpower training and utilization. In the planning process the individuals are needed for their input through special task forces. Needless to say these individuals need to possess political viability, professional status, technical competence, organizational competence, and continuity in their respective positions.

The variable referring to doctrine can be defined as "the specification of values, objectives, and operational methods underlying social action." In this situation, both educators and agency personnel must be aware of the values inherent in the delivery of human services as well as the overall objectives of providing for improved human functioning in a highly technological society. There also needs to be consensus which can grow out of the planning process in the area of shared responsibility. Educational institutions recognize their role and function with regard to manpower training and the agencies do likewise in recognizing their unique role in manpower utilization. The specification of human needs as they are reflected in client populations provides the foundation for consensus building. Needless to say both educators and agency representatives must constantly adapt their concerns for the improvement of the human condition with the prevailing societal preferences and priorities.

The variable referring to program can be defined as "those actions which are related to the performance of functions and services constituting the output of the institution." In essence, the planning process becomes institutionalized, and serves as a vehicle for collaborative planning between educational institutions and human service agencies. Important aspects of this program variable include consistency and stability in providing the coordinating function as well as the important sensing device necessary to adjust to constantly changing human needs in the society at large.

The variable "resources" refers to "financial, physical, human, technological, and informational input of the institution." This variable highlights the need for educators and agency representatives to work together for the mutual benefit of gaining resources for their respective programs (e.g. training grants and funds for service delivery). Resource determination and the securing of resources become major variables in the success of building an institution devoted to collaboration.

And finally the fifth variable of internal structure can be defined as "the structure and processes established for the operation of the institution and for its maintenance." This variable highlights in part the extreme necessity of involving the right managerial talent to structure and maintain such a new institution. Who does what and with what authority become crucial. In addition, the commitment of planners to the needs of clients and the service personnel are equally important and affect the capacity of the coordinating institution to carry out programmatic commitments. The internal structure of a coordinating institution, therefore, must be designed to facilitate its basic product, namely communication.

The Linkages

The second category of variables in the framework labeled linkages involves the concept of interdependence. Building an institution for collaborative planning requires a recognition of its interdependence with other relevant parts of the educational and service delivery systems. The newly built institution does not exist in isolation and it must establish and maintain linkages with professional groups, legislative committees, and consumers of human services in order for it to survive and function. These linkages are crucial for the purposes of gaining support, overcoming resistance, exchanging resources, structuring its operational environment, and transferring norms and values. In essence, the strategies and tactics by which the leadership of a new institution attempts to operate through such linkages become key factors.

The variable referring to enabling linkages involves the linking "with organizations and social groups which control the allocation of authority and resources needed by the institution to function." This enabling linkage then provides a conceptual tool for understanding the need to keep alive the contacts necessary to the survival of the new institution.

The concept of functional linkages refers to the linking "with those organizations performing functions and services which are complementary and which supply the inputs and which use the outputs of the institution." This notion of functional linkages refers most closely to the interdependence between educational planners and manpower utilizers. The institution of collaboration then provides a key means for linking the two sectors of education and service.

The variable referring to normative linkages involves the linking "with institutions which incorporate norms and values (positive or negative) which are relevant to the doctrine and program of the institution." This form of linkage refers primarily to the involvement of professional and occupational groups which have a stake in both the education process and the utilization of manpower in the agency. In most specific form, this would involve the associations of workers involved in the human service field. It might also involve consumer groups who are directly affected by both the manpower produced by academia and utilized by agencies.

And finally the fourth variable labeled diffused linkages involves "elements in the society which cannot clearly be identified by membership in formal organizations." This linking relationship might again involve consumers of human services as well as human service workers in other allied fields who support related service programs.

This conceptual framework for institution building provides a way of summarizing the goals of our planning process. We are attempting to institutionalize the system of communication and collaboration which develops throughout the two years of the planning process. The institutionalization should take the form of a mechanism for collaborative planning between higher education and human service agencies concerned with the maximum of utilization of personnel to more effectively deliver services to meet client needs. It should also take into account the on-going needs within the area of higher education for communication among all levels of education.

The Primary Transaction

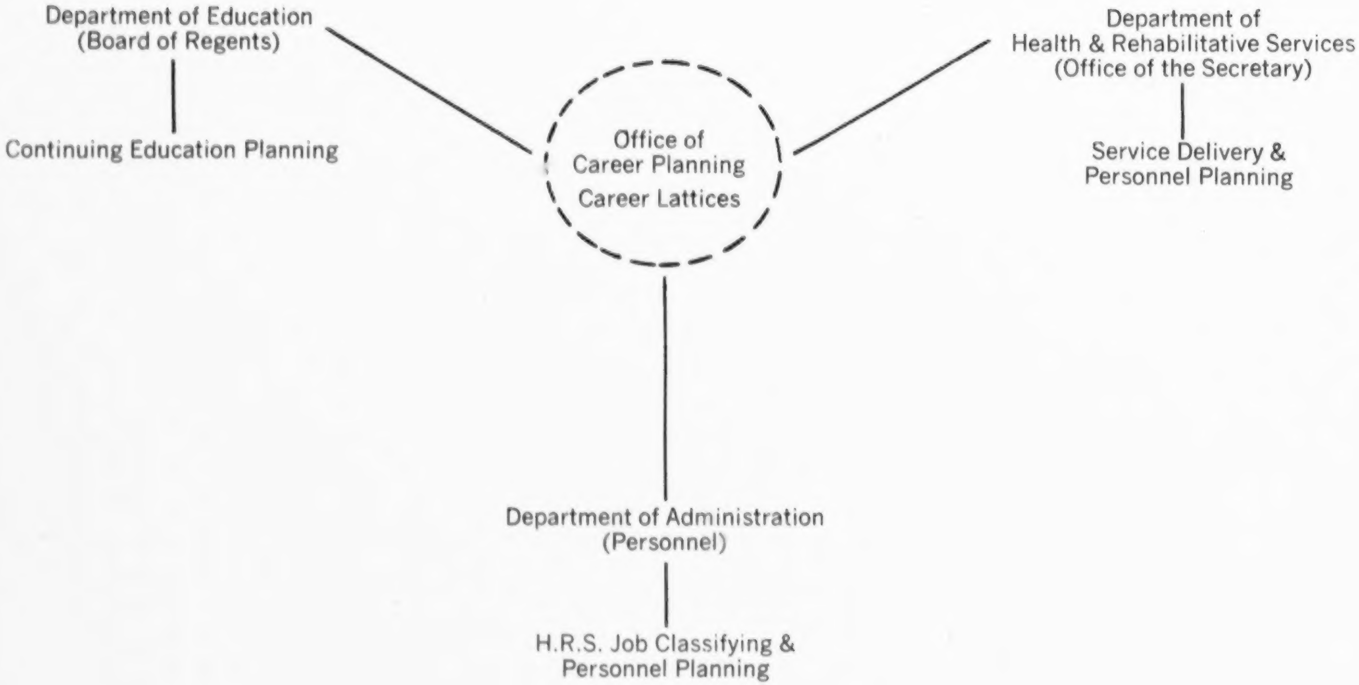
As indicated in the framework for institution building, the central focal point is transactions which in this case can be identified as the primary objectives underlying the development of a new institution to be called an Office of Career Planning. The primary objectives of this new planning mechanism include: 1) the development of career lattices in and across human service agencies, 2) linking the educational system with the human service system for purposes of collaborative career planning and mutual support in the areas of staff utilization and development and 3) linking the educational and service systems with the personnel system for purposes of joint planning and mutual support in the areas of qualifying examinations and performance standards.

The linkages needed to carry out the major objectives of an Office of Career Planning are identified in Figure 2. It should be noted that three major units of state government in Florida will be involved in collaborative planning: the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services, the Department of Education, and the Department of Administration. Representatives from each Department share concerns about how staff are recruited, utilized, evaluated, upgraded, and promoted. These issues underlie the overall objective of building career lattices which serve to expand opportunities for human service personnel by expanding their performance capabilities and their options for increased job responsibility and authority.

Institution Building in Florida

The concepts of institution building provide the basis for understanding a new planning mechanism linking higher education with human service agencies. An Office of Career Planning and Curriculum Development for the Human Services has been established in the State University System with a primary focus on career development issues. This Office will address manpower utilization issues in Florida's largest human service agency, The Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services,[2] through gathering information and assisting agencies in documenting manpower needs. This Office

Figure 2
A CAREER PLANNING STRATEGY
1972-1975


Department of Education
(Board of Regents)
Continuing Education Planning
Office of
Career Planning
Career Lattices
Department of
Health & Rehabilitative Services
(Office of the Secretary)
Service Delivery &
Personnel Planning
Department of Administration
(Personnel)
H.R.S. Job Classifying &
Personnel Planning

will be concerned with the human service professions and related paraprofessional manpower. This Office will also serve as a mechanism for articulating the manpower needs of H.R.S. Divisions to educational programs at the secondary, community college, undergraduate and graduate levels in institutions of public education throughout the state with the responsibility for academic preparation of human service workers. The Office will serve the dual function of assisting agencies to more effectively utilize personnel while assisting educational institutions in developing more relevant programs and curricula. With the identification of pre-service and in-service training needs, educational institutions will be better prepared to assist the human service agencies in Florida.

The Groundwork for Institution Building

Given the current state of involvement in manpower planning nationwide, educational planning efforts of the State University System represent some pioneering efforts not only within Florida but within the nation.[3] A great deal of effort has been made to gather baseline data, monitor the changes both within the service arena and academia, and generally in attempting to gauge the problems and issues in the emerging area of manpower planning and development. To date projects have been successful in identifying many key issues in manpower planning and curricular development, casting these issues in a framework for comprehensive planning, and creating a mechanism for interagency and interinstitutional articulation.

The new Office of Career Planning represents the results of several years of planning. While it will identify some future directions for career planning to be carried out collaboratively between agency representatives and educators for improved service delivery, the State University System plans to devote considerable staff effort to the improvement of career counseling on the campuses through the planning of a coordinated statistical system of job market assignment.[4]

As a result of planning over the last several years, agencies have begun to identify both their current and projected manpower needs and demands. For example, recent activities with the Division of Family Services in the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services have resulted in increased attention to manpower planning as an adjunct to service planning, staff development planning, and personnel management. Agencies are beginning to evaluate the ways in which they recruit, employ, and utilize personnel. Attention is being directed at delineating knowledge and skill components for new worker jobs consonant with the demands of changing patterns of service delivery. Agency administrators are becoming more attuned to expressing their needs relative to manpower development to educators.

Much groundwork has been laid that sets the stage to operationalize several critical products of our current planning efforts. The primary planning strategy of the State University System staff has included data collection, information dissemination, recommendations on manpower utilization and curricular issues, and consultation and support to educational institutions and human service agencies. These efforts have been preliminary and now require a more concerted effort to identify the special manpower needs of many of the human service programs of the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services. As the manpower needs of the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services are identified, the manpower needs of institutions of higher education in Florida will also be assessed in terms of occupation activity categories proposed recently by the National Center for Higher Education Manpower Systems at the Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education.[5]

In order to build on past accomplishments, a new operational mechanism is needed to work toward assisting agencies in making the best possible use of manpower relative to client problems and service objectives while assisting in the development of career satisfaction and mobility for workers at all levels. In addition, a more productive interface needs to be created between campus and agency. An Office of Career Planning and Curriculum Development represents the most feasible mechanism at this point in time in Florida's human service system.

A Site for Institution Building

The Office of Academic Affairs of the State University System provides a unique locale for coordinated planning in the State of Florida. In addition to the expertise which has developed over the past several years in manpower planning, the State University System provides a locale for linking the manpower concerns of the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services with the educational programs of the State University System.

Recent developments emanating from the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools provide universities greater latitude in expanding their efforts in continuing educational and professional development. In particular, Standard 9 emphasizes flexibility and increased opportunities for universities to become involved in short-term training efforts through conferences, institutes, short courses, workshops, and seminars. As a result, there will be greater opportunity for university programs to assist in meeting the staff development needs and continuing education concerns of human service agencies throughout Florida. Through the development of continuing education units of study, designed to meet specific needs of various audiences, universities are being encouraged to expand their efforts to meet the needs of citizens throughout the state as well as personnel in various state programs.

Through the data collection function of an Office of Career Planning and Curriculum Development, it will be possible to translate manpower information and personnel needs into career development profiles which will assist universities in planning programs in accordance with the needs of workers at various levels of education. While agency staff development programs will be expanding throughout Florida in the coming years, there is an equal need for universities to become more acquainted with manpower utilization issues and thereby meet the increased demand for career mobility and the desires of workers to increase their levels of competency.

There has been a growing recognition in recent years both on the campuses and in the agencies that both faculty members as well as agency staff development specialists are functioning in similar capacities. Both are involved in training. Both have a conceptualization of future worker and client needs. The primary differences lie in the fact that the campus based instructor must train students on the basis of many fields of practice in contrast to the agency trainer who has traditionally only been concerned with the needs and demands of his specific field of practice. As a result of these developments, universities are moving more in the direction of licensing for the profession of future practitioners through the granting of degrees whether at the Associate, Baccalaureate, or Master's level. At the same time there is a growing pressure from workers going through agency in-service training programs to certify completion. This certification pressure results from the worker's perception that specialized training should be rewarded through career advancement and mobility.

There is a point where the licensing function of the university and the certifying function of the agency can meet and this is the expanding area of continuing education. Often universities have only a limited understanding of the continuing education needs of agency personnel. Universities have traditionally provided continuing education programs which have developed primarily on the basis of specific faculty expertise or degree requirements rather than upon the specific needs of agency personnel. At the same time, agencies have had difficulty in expressing and defining their specific personnel needs so that universities might be involved in meeting such needs.

Supporting Evidence for Institution Building

Considerable attention is being directed to the effective utilization of manpower in a variety of human service agencies nationwide. Changing patterns of service delivery, increased demands on service systems, and the movement toward hiring workers from the "client group" have resulted in the emergence of new kinds of jobs for new kinds of workers.

The job market in Florida has been very tight for the past year. Staff turnover rates have dropped drastically. New positions for two year graduates have been cut into by the overabundance of available manpower at the four year level. Recently Florida has attracted new federal program money to improve services and reduce dependency. Overnight, service programming and manpower demands have begun to change. Not only are planners faced with the task of developing new kinds of service delivery systems, but they are also faced with the crucial problem of how to staff new service programs. An already overburdened personnel (classification) administration system will be called upon to revise the classification system as new kinds of workers are needed. Agency staff development programs will be called upon to meet the challenge of training many new workers.

While all this is going on within the agency, educational institutions are confronted with the problem of negotiating with agencies to better define the match between manpower supply and demand. Many questions will be posed to educators. What will be the short-term and long-term needs of human service agencies for workers at the two year, four year, and graduate levels? Can agencies delineate knowledge and skill areas for anticipated job sets? What is the anticipated agency support for career development programs? What is the community college and university role in agency staff development to be?

Educators have begun to engage in critical self-examinations of their programs. A new perspective is beginning to emerge on the nature of education in the applied fields of human services. Not only are educators beginning to converse with agency representatives around issues of mutual concern in a more productive manner, but they are also beginning to converse with each other.

Although considerable research has been conducted by the Southern Regional Education Board in identifying the core skills and knowledge required by human service personnel along with the functional job analysis approach of the Upjohn Institute, considerable translation is still required in order for the operating agencies to deal with their manpower dilemmas. It is imperative that educators, practitioners, and administrators join forces to develop strategies for dealing with the crucial problems of manpower development. Thoughtful study needs to be given to the development of meaningful roles and functions of agency personnel at all levels. Standards of performance and procedures for evaluating performance need to be developed at all levels. Expected entry level knowledge and practice skill must be stated at all levels and communicated to educators charged with the responsibility of providing that knowledge and those practice skills.

Key Issues and Planning Objectives

An analysis of current career planning issues in Florida indicates the need for three primary planning perspectives:

1) *Service Delivery Systems* — This includes an analysis of the latest concepts and technologies in manpower planning related to the issues of staff deployment, supervision or service management, and program administration. The application of new concepts such as functional job analysis and new role models* is useful in: a) analyzing agency manpower utilization procedures and; b) in assisting administrators in making management decisions about work distribution and the creation of new jobs;

2) *Personnel Administration* — This includes an analysis of the alternatives offered for career advancement for workers at all levels. Career mobility can be examined relative to classification systems, qualifying examinations, and performance standards and the way each of these components reflects the needs of the service delivery system;

3) *Staff Development*— This includes an analysis of agency based in-service training programs as well as university based continuing education programs for purposes of curriculum development. Staff development can be viewed as taking four basic forms: a) basic orientation to the service systems, the clientele, and the service professions; b) training related to changes in job requirements or structuring and new programming; c) training related to on-going skill development of workers at all levels and; d) training related to the career aspirations and job mobility of workers at all levels.

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The primary focus of the Office of Career Planning and Curriculum Development will be to assist the Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services in identifying and documenting their manpower needs, transmitting those needs to institutions of higher education in Florida, and stimulating educational support for staff development programming. This Office will have the long-range goal of collaboratively planning for the improvement of the overall service delivery system of the Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services by effecting a higher degree of synchronization between the outputs of the educational system and the needs of the human service delivery system. In order to realize this goal the Office will address the following issues:

1) Development of a planning approach that emphasizes a collaborative effort between educators and agency representatives;
2) Identification of the interrelated nature of manpower planning vis a vis service delivery, personnel administration and staff development;
3) Application of new concepts and technologies to manpower planning;
4) Delineation of desired competencies of graduates from various levels of human service educational programs within the state system;
5) Development of a systematic program of continuing education for the state agency's human service workers;
6) Encouragement of the creation of a more workable educational continuum in the human services; and
7) Creation of a manpower information system designed to project manpower needs and demands relative to quantity, educational levels, competencies, and work roles.

Building a new institution is a complex venture. The several variables noted in the earlier framework indicate the many different ways a new institution can become shipwrecked. The commitments of people in large bureaucracies will play a significant role in the destiny of institution building for career planning in Florida. When looking at the human service industry we must beware of the dangers inherent in the old shipbuilding principle of building watertight compartments sealed off from one another in order to keep the ship from sinking. Service delivery, personnel planning, and staff development planning will succeed only when perceived as being elements of a total system.

NOTES

[1] Joseph W. Eaton, (ed.), *Institution Building and Development: From Concepts to Application* (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc., 1972).

[2] Division of Administration, Division of Planning and Evaluation, Division of Family Services, Division of Youth Services, Division of Mental Health, Division of Mental Retardation, Division of Corrections, Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, Division of Health.

[3] For example: Criminal Justice Education Planning, Social Work Education Planning, Cooperative Education Planning with Government and Industry, etc.

[4] This planning effort includes the assembling and dissemination of the state's manpower requirements in government and industry and the personnel trained to meet those requirements. This approach will include the development of interdepartmental projections of quantitative manpower needs, especially between the Florida Department of Education and the Florida Department of Commerce. A single output format will be developed for career counselors in Florida post-secondary educational institutions.

[5] In accordance with W. John Minter, *A Manual For Manpower Accounting in Higher Education* (Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 1972).

[6] As developed by the W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research and the Southern Regional Education Board.